

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 27, 1876.

## The Week.

THE indications, so far as they go, with regard to the prospects of the canvass, seem to be all in favor of Hayes and Wheeler. One of the signs of the current, though a very small one, is the disappearance from the field in favor of Hayes of the ridiculous organization called Liberal Republican, conducted by Messrs. Ethan Allen and John Cochrane, which was the sole relic of the Greeley party. Mr. Allen has announced that its Convention will not meet. The Cincinnati *Commercial* also has come out in Hayes's favor, and other independent organs. The most powerful argument in favor of the support of Tilden by honest reformers has come from the pen of Mr. Parke Godwin, in the shape of a long letter to the *Tribune*, which certainly every one ought to read. The reasons are mostly familiar, but we do not think they have ever been so well put together before. Mr. Tilden's cause is suffering somewhat from the non-appearance of his letter of acceptance, the delay being popularly ascribed to his labors with Mr. Hendricks. That the canvass has entered on its more exciting stage is evident from an offer, on the part of the New York *Times*, to show, in reply to the charge that General Grant gets drunk, that Mr. Tilden was drunk on the night he received the news of his nomination. Of Mr. Hayes's habits nothing has as yet been said, but it will doubtless be revealed that he is a sly, cautious drinker, who keeps a private still for his own use, and bribes the revenue officers. We begin to receive letters enquiring why we do not support him more cordially. To which we reply, that we shall support him soberly, judiciously, and with our eyes open. We are more concerned about reform than about any candidate, and will not engage in any game of wholesale eulogy or blind advocacy on any account. It ought to be understood that the conflict within the Republican party between corruption and honesty is not yet over, and it behoves everybody, while throwing up his cap for Hayes, to keep a close eye on Chandler and Cornell. Moreover, we supported General Grant in 1868 and in 1872; the first time heartily and enthusiastically, the second, hopefully and resignedly. What a bad bargain he has turned out is known to all the world. Having been grossly deceived in a case in which we seemed to have so many guarantees of fitness as in his, we think we owe it to our readers to proceed this time with more caution. Besides which, they will find the indiscriminate eulogies, the prophecies of the reign of heavenly purity after election, and the daily discoveries of new virtues in the candidate, in other papers.

Mr. Wheeler has written his letter accepting the nomination for the Vice-Presidency. On the Southern question, he refers to his views recently expressed as a member of the House Committee, reiterates his conviction that it is a delusion to hope that the Southern States, so far behindhand as they are in much that is essential to civilization, can in ten or fifteen years be transformed into "our model Northern communities"; that this must come through time and education; that our duty is to satisfy the Southern people that they are to have "general and exact justice"; that we should give them no cause for complaint, and hold them to a rigid observance of their duties under the Constitution and laws. With regard to the currency, he declares that, in his judgment, the pledge of Congress contained in the Resumption Act is "the plighted faith of the nation," and must be scrupulously observed and supplemented by Congress with "such legislation as shall be necessary for its strict fulfilment." He thinks the public schools ought to be secured against sectarian influence or control; that there should be strict economy in the expenditures

of the Government; that all unnecessary offices should be abolished; and that offices "should be conferred only upon the basis of high character and particular fitness, and should be administered only as public trusts, and not for private advantage."

Mr. Tilden will, the *Herald* says it is confident, take ground in his letter of acceptance in favor of the one-term principle, and it shows that he has an opportunity "for eclipsing the noble pledge" given by Mr. Hayes. Mr. Hayes, in his letter, said that if elected nothing should persuade him to become a candidate for a second term; but, as the *Herald* points out, this is "simply the expression of a personal preference and opinion." Mr. Tilden has an opportunity of going further, for he may not merely announce his intention of taking no second term, but may add that, if elected, "he will, in his first message or his inaugural address, recommend Congress to submit a one-term amendment to the Constitution to the vote of the State legislatures." The difference between the two would be that Hayes would merely have made a promise and pledged his honor, while Tilden "would have introduced a reform which would be as enduring as the Government itself." This does not strike us as going far enough, for Hayes might come out in a supplementary letter and make the same announcement of his intention, and the people would then hardly know which to elect. There is one way in which Mr. Tilden might vie with Hayes and show a more retiring and unselfish spirit; that is, by declaring that if elected he will not serve at all, and, placing himself on the no-term plank, entirely remove, what Mr. Hayes's platform only does partially, the temptation to personal ambition which now stands in the way of reform. If he cannot bring himself to this, he might, as a compromise measure, agree to go out at the end of two years (thus giving his ambition a shorter time to work than Mr. Hayes has promised to do), or earlier in case what the correspondents of newspapers call "straws"—i.e., the vote of the morning express train on the Erie Road, and the number of *Times* newspapers sold at the stand in the waiting-room of the Fulton Ferry compared with the number of *Worlds*—show a decided preference on the part of the people for a change. These "straws," which are always being published and calculated upon, still serve no useful purpose and have never been incorporated in any way into the Constitution or statutes. Mr. Tilden has an opportunity to remedy this omission.

The price of silver during the week has advanced in London to 50*l.* per ounce on a reduced demand from India. The corresponding rise here was sufficient to make the gold value of the trade-dollar 86½ cents, against 80¼ cents less than two weeks ago. As the gold value of the greenback dollar during the same time has varied less than one per cent., it will be seen that as a measure of values even the suspended paper of the Government is at present preferable to silver; during the week the greenback dollar ruled at \$0.8968 to \$0.8938. The bill which limits the issue of subsidiary silver coin to \$50,000,000, demonetizes the "trade dollar," and permits the issue of this coin for U. S. legal-tender notes, became a law on Monday, the President having on that day signed it. It was thought that with the enactment of this bill further efforts to drag the Government into the silver business would be deferred until the next session of Congress. But the Bonanza mine-owners, it has since turned out, had other plans, and, early in the week, the Committee on Mines and Mining reported to the House another silver bill which in its monstrous features surpasses anything which has been formally proposed. Its main provisions are (1) that it authorizes the issue of notes on all deposits of gold and silver bullion at the mints and assay-offices, whether this bullion is the product of our own mines or whether it is imported; and (2) it makes

these notes, which are to be redeemable in bullion or resulting coin, receivable without limit for all dues to the United States, and the coin (the silver to be coined at 412.5 grains to the dollar) a legal-tender for all debts of the United States not specified to be paid in gold coin. That is to say, as the mints are not capable of turning out silver dollars as rapidly as the Bonanza owners think desirable, they are to have the privilege of getting United States notes on deposit of their marketable products, and these notes are to serve the purposes of gold in the payment of customs, and also to be serviceable in paying all taxes to the Government, and the Government is to be forced to coin silver dollars. Aside from the inflation which the bill proposes, it is the same as if the Government should receive any other almost unlimitable product of the country and issue notes thereon. The bill makes a most direct thrust against the public credit. When our bonds were issued, it was expressly stipulated that, to guarantee for ever the payment of the interest on these in gold, the customs receipts should be payable only in gold coin. The Bonanza bill removes, so far as a law can, this safeguard, and permits the customs to be paid in bullion certificates; as silver-bullion certificates could be used, they of course would be; and the revenue of the Government would consist of silver. This would compel the payment of the interest in silver, and the principal when due as well, and would drive gold into disuse.

The New Hampshire Legislature adjourned last week after a session of unusual length, a very large portion of which was devoted with great steadfastness to the work of civil-service reform. The reform was carried through by the Republicans, who, of course, were steadily opposed by the wicked Democrats, and not a small part of the unusual length of the session must be ascribed to the resistance made by these evil-minded obstructors to the work of the single-minded majority. Upon one occasion, indeed, the "filibustering" of the cruel Democrats—initiated to stave off action upon a special reform bill, that applying to one of the counties—kept the perspiring Republicans in their seats throughout the watches of one of the hottest nights of our heated period, and not until long after sunrise did the Democrats finally "cave" and allow victory to perch upon the weary heads of the New Hampshire Republicans. The reform measures passed were extremely simple and thorough. They were chiefly in the form of an "address" to the governor and council directing the removal of all the Democratic officials of say Rockingham County—judge of probate, register of probate, solicitor, sheriff, etc. When one county had been thus purified, another county would be taken up in regular order, until all the county officers, nearly 75 in number, were disposed of. Then the police justices of the various towns were attended to; then the State officers, high and low, even to the three Fish Commissioners; until, finally, when the honest and hard-fisted farmers of New Hampshire went home to their neglected haying, they went with the proud consciousness that not a single miserable Democrat remained in office within the boundaries of their redeemed State. The exceeding thoroughness of the work must be peculiarly gratifying to Messrs. Chandler and Cornell, and New Hampshire may be put down as sure for Hayes and Wheeler and civil-service reform. We should perhaps add that the New Hampshire Republicans do not lay claim to any originality of method in the passage of these very satisfactory measures, but state that they keep closely to Democratic precedent, as furnished by that party when in power in 1874—all of which, as we can testify, is strictly true.

The Intercollegiate Boat-race at Saratoga on Wednesday week ended in a complete and well-won victory for Cornell, both in the University, the Freshman, and the single-scutt races, Harvard coming in a good second in all three, to the surprise of those who had been discouraged by the defeat of her University crew at Springfield. There was, however, nothing remarkable in the struggle. The Cornell University crew had the advantage, which is considerable, of an average of two years in age over Harvard, though

their average weight was somewhat less, but their rowing was good enough to win in any case. As a spectacle, the race was a failure, and it is not to be regretted that this is probably the last one which will occur at Saratoga. In the first place, the uncertainty as to the day and hour at which a race on the lake can come off is fatal to any sustained interest on the part of spectators. After making one or two idle journeys out to the lake from the village, a distance of four miles, people's eagerness to see dies out. Besides this, the spectators who collect for a race at Saratoga are not of the right sort. It is far removed from all the colleges, and the hotels contain but few of that portion of the public which takes much interest either in boating or in colleges. The dressy women, "prominent financiers," politicians, elderly lawyers, and long-whiskered, old watering-place beaux whom they supply for the grand stand, attend merely to kill a few hours of time that hangs heavily, and they watch "the finish," however gallant the struggle, with somewhat the same feelings with which they would the starting or returning of Mr. Delancey Kane's coach. The result was that on Wednesday there was no enthusiasm whatever, and hardly any cheering, except what came from the few members of the contesting colleges who could spare time or money for so long a journey.

Harvard and Yale have both withdrawn from the Association, Yale having done so before the race, and will hereafter continue their old contests between themselves only, on some piece of water in New England. There can be little doubt of the expediency of this course, if for no other reason, because it seems to be clearly demonstrated that the interest in a boat-race declines in the ratio of the number of boats participating. It is difficult to watch a race of several boats—they are as objects so low, and the water is so glittering, and the area occupied necessarily so great—unless from a considerable height, which the locality does not always supply, and which it is not worth while to construct. In addition to this, the spectators need to be drawn from a locality in which the competing crews are well known, and the result therefore likely to cause genuine excitement. Nothing can be more spiritless than a race before a silent and simply curious crowd. Harvard and Yale, however, in retiring, leave the field with a considerable loss of prestige, and we do not see how they are to get it back. They have lost their boating pre-eminence, and left the championship in the hands of a college with which they now cut themselves off from the opportunity of again trying their strength.

The Commission appointed under the advice of the Advisory Council to hear any charges that might be made against Henry Ward Beecher met on Saturday in this city, and were presented with an address from the Examining Committee of the church, which said that they (the Committee) were unable to offer any evidence, or indicate where any evidence could be found, beyond saying that they understood Mr. and Mrs. Joseph H. Richards were supposed by some to know something against Mr. Beecher's character, also Mr. Henry C. Bowen, Mrs. Cady Stanton, and Miss Susan B. Anthony, though it was also reported that the ladies denied that they had any such testimony as was ascribed to them to offer. The Committee further said that their confidence in their pastor and sympathy with him were such as to render it inadvisable that they should render the Commission assistance in preparing the case or procuring testimony. The Commission then voted in reply that they would hear and examine every formal charge against Mr. Beecher which they did not regard as already sufficiently tried, if presented by a person who should undertake to produce proof of the same. They then adjourned, subject to the call of the chair; but they will hardly meet again, as no such person is at all likely to appear. A more serious proceeding than this is, however, going on in the courts over the same matter. Mr. Moulton has sued Mr. Beecher for malicious prosecution in having him indicted by the Grand Jury for slander. Mr. Beecher demurred, on the ground that the entering of a *nolle prosequi* by the District Attorney was a bar to the action. The Brooklyn judge sustained the demurrer; the General Term



of the Supreme Court at Poughkeepsie overruled it. From this there is no appeal, and Mr. Beecher must now either plead or suffer judgment to go against him by default. But after suffering judgment to be entered, he can appeal on the same point to the Court of Appeals, and he will therefore probably suffer the default. The beauty and simplicity of this bit of procedure is a credit to the authors of the Code and to the bench and bar. To save trouble and make an end of strife a man may not go to the court of last resort on an interlocutory order. But if he virtually abandons the case and lets it go to the conclusion, he may then, having had all the trouble he can, go to the same court against the order; that is, they won't set him down at a way station, in order to avoid expense and delay, but will carry him to the terminus and then bring the train back with him to his original destination.

It is impossible to speak with any positiveness of the result of the military operations in Turkey, the accounts are so conflicting and the truth there may be in them is covered up in so much palpable falsehood. We subjoin as connected and probable a sketch of the operations of the past week as can be gleaned from the telegrams. It seems to be becoming clear on the whole that the prediction on which we ventured before the outbreak of hostilities, that the Servians would get the worst of it at the outset, owing to their want of preparation, is being realized. Their army is undoubtedly badly drilled, organized, officered, and supplied, and the armament, Snider rifles, is inferior to that of the Turks, who have Remingtons, and have the additional advantage of a strong sense of military superiority to their enemy. It therefore appears likely that the Turks are having the advantage in all the regular encounters, and that the hastily raised Servian troops are finding fighting becoming very disagreeable now that their enthusiasm begins to evaporate, and are not only making no progress but are being themselves placed on the defensive. On the other hand, the Turks are likely to suffer seriously from any prolongation of the operations, owing both to the heavy drain on the producing population and to the devastation of the chief tax-paying districts. Then, too, if the Servians and Montenegrins betake themselves, as the Herzegovinians have done, to the irregular warfare, they will, even if they achieve nothing rapidly decisive, assail the Turks on the side on which they are weakest, for they have neither the tenacity nor energy nor quickness of conception which are needed in guerilla fighting. As far as can be ascertained from the utterances of the press and the various Foreign Offices of the Great Powers during the last fortnight, there is an agreement more or less general that Russia has been an instigator of the trouble, and that some attempt at more active interference may be looked for from her in case the Servians and Montenegrins are in danger of decided defeat. There are already stories of Russian regiments being sent into Servia disguised as civilians, but these are ordinary canards of Eastern warfare, and only worth repeating as indications of what is running in the popular mind.

It has only been possible since our last issue to discover the truth in regard to the important engagement at Isvor on the 12th inst. At this place Osman Pasha was encamped with 12,000 men, and was attacked by General Leshjanin, who crossed the Timok for that purpose with eighteen Servian battalions, numbering about 10,000 men. His army was decidedly repulsed, and compelled to recross the river with heavy losses in men and arms. There was more fighting before Bjelina on the 20th, but it seems impossible to decide whether General Olympics was worsted, and even driven to an island in the Drina, or whether he won the day against his assailants. Equally contradictory are the reports of an insignificant encounter on the south near Radosinge, where the Servians under a priest named Dutchitch are said to have pushed back the Turks towards Nova Varosh, a town on the upper Drina. It is probable that the Turks did not succeed in taking Gramada, com-

manding the road from Saitshar to Alexinat. It is also probable that the Servians have lost their positions around Nissa, and that Tcherniaieff's command, recalled from Akpalanka, is again at home in Servian territory. That this will shortly be, if it is not already, the fate of the other divisions of the Servian army, seems only too likely. The Montenegrin campaign continues to indicate a want of military purpose and of proper leadership, and the absence of co-operation with the Servians. A decided Turkish victory near Nevesinje is reported.

In France the University Bill, restoring to the Government the control of the universities, has been rejected in the Senate, which has thus given a second striking proof of the strength of its conservative feeling, the election of M. Buffet to fill a vacancy being the first. It was at first thought that this would lead to a ministerial crisis, but it was at once announced that it would not do so, as the Ministry did not consider the bill a Cabinet measure. The matter led to a debate in the Assembly, on a motion of confidence in the Ministry, which had the warm support of M. Gambetta and was carried unanimously, the Bonapartists abstaining from voting. One of the remarkable signs of the times is that M. Freycinet, Gambetta's delegate during the German wars, has been appointed by the Commission on Military Affairs, a majority of whom are military men, to make the report to the Chamber, in spite of the strenuous opposition of the Government, so strong is the impression of his ability which has been made on them. The fear of him entertained by the Ministry of War is due to the fact that he represents the plan of infusing a stronger portion of the civilian element into the administration of the army.

A custom-house case has occurred in Melbourne, Australia, which strikingly resembles the Phelps & Dodge case in this city, and strikingly illustrates the way in which high tariff on the *ad-valorem* principle helps to break down both the political and social morals of a community, by giving baseness an air of virtue and destroying official respect for individual rights. A dry-goods firm named Stevenson & Son dismissed a clerk: the clerk accused them to the custom-house officials of defrauding the revenue by double invoices. The collector demanded permission to examine their goods and books, and was permitted to make it, but found no evidence. He then asked to see their private correspondence with their London partners, which was refused, as having no bearing on the value of their goods and as likely to injure their business by exposing their methods to rivals. Thereupon, the collector seized the goods; the firm, under legal advice, expelled the officers *vi et armis* as trespassers, but they returned with reinforcements and assaulted the premises, the firm defending, and there was a good fight, in which the collector was victorious. His men, however, evacuated the store in three days, carrying off \$2,500 of goods on which they said that insufficient duty had been paid, and he got the Postmaster-General to refuse to deliver the firm's letters. On application for a mandamus to compel him, the Court denied it on the ground that there was remedy by action of trover or bill in equity. In the meantime, the business of the firm was at a standstill and the community was becoming roused: so the Governor called a Cabinet meeting, and the Cabinet, afraid to recede or go on, proposed that the firm should open their letters in the presence of post-office and custom-house officers, for the ridiculous reason, worthy of B. G. Jayne, that the Government might be satisfied that "the contents were such as might be expected from the head office of a firm holding the position they had hitherto enjoyed in Victoria." Refusal by the firm, and final surrender of the letters unconditionally, closed this stage of the farce; but the Commissioner of Customs, full of fury, informed the firm that he would now open every package of the goods of the firm to see whether they conformed to the invoice, and has kept his promise. The matter will, of course, now be carried into the courts.

## THE SOUTH IN THE CANVASS.

ONE of the saddest features in the condition of the South just now is the part it plays in the political contests at the North. We do not think we are at all uncharitable when we say that, during the next three or four months, Mr. Chandler and Mr. Cornell, and their subordinates and assistants in the canvass, will look for outrages and murders of negroes in their paper every morning as the most welcome bits of news on which their eye could light. To hear that a negro in Georgia or Mississippi was taken into the woods and whipped will make them smile; but to hear that several negro houses were burnt down, and the occupants pushed back into the flames, or that twenty negroes, arrested on a charge of chicken-theft, were taken from the custody of the sheriff on the way to jail and butchered in cold blood, will make them laugh and clap their hands, and run lustily to the nearest stump to improve and spread the story. We do not say that the Democrats are incapable of experiencing under like circumstances the same unseemly joy; but, luckily for them, the best news they can hear from the South at present is the news of peace and order. It is for the interest of their party that the negroes should be prosperous and secure, and that, if anybody at the South is uncomfortable, it should be the whites. It is of no slight importance to a party to have its interests and those of society identical, and no slight misfortune to be even in a small degree dependent on public calamities for success. The Democrats have in fact had recent and dismal experience of the Republican state of mind, for during the four years of the war a Union defeat and disaster supplied them with almost all their political capital; they wept when their neighbors were glad, and made merry when they were sad. But they may now thank their stars that from this devilish temptation they have been at last delivered, and that the more peaceful the South is, the better for them and their cause.

We are led to make these observations by seeing the great importance which the Republican orators and editors evidently attach to the Hamburg affair. Some of them, in fact, talk of it with as much gusto as if it were likely to exert a decisive influence on the Presidential election, or, at all events, as if one more good, substantial slaughter of negroes would make Hayes's election sure. Now, no language can well be too strong in condemnation of the state of manners which makes such occurrences as that at Hamburg possible. Nothing the negroes had done or tried to do, according to any version of the affair, could make the shooting of the prisoners anything but a piece of atrocious savagery. It is ridiculous for a community in which such things are either sanctioned or tolerated to talk of itself as civilized. There is no use in being white in color if your conduct is that of an Ashantee, and the shooting of unarmed and suppliant prisoners is in all respects worthy of the society of Coomassie. In resorting to such modes of repressing negro excesses, the Southern men reach the lowest negro level. But then the atrocity of the affair, and of all such affairs, does not necessarily connect it with the general politics of the country. There is no sense in allowing it to determine how one will vote at the Presidential election if the vote is meant merely to be an expression of disapprobation. To vote for Hayes, for instance, without regard to other considerations, merely to show Southerners that we disapprove of such conduct, would be little short of folly. Southerners know already that the whole North, and the whole civilized world, disapprove of such conduct. They would not know it any better if we elected Hayes ten times over. Moreover, the election of Hayes would of itself not necessarily act as a deterrent from such acts. Stump orators and party organs talk as if it would, but they know it would not. Electing a Republican President, or keeping the Republican party in power, is not of itself sufficient to mend matters at the South. We have had a Republican President and a Republican House and Senate for eight years, and yet the South is, according to those who are most clamorous for a further trial of the remedy, in a terrible condition, as the Hamburg matter shows. Mr. Boutwell thought, only last year, that we were on the eve of

another civil war; and Mr. Dawes, when stumping for Butler at the last election, assured us that all Southern negroes went to bed every night in confident expectation of arson or murder. Now, if this is the result of eight years of Republican legislation and administration in time of peace, it is useless to urge us to try four years more of it as a certain specific. Nor is it easy to see why matters should get any worse under a Democratic Administration, for the same prospect of impunity exists now which would exist then. As long as the State governors do not call for Federal interference, the President, whether Republican or Democratic, could do nothing for the protection of negro life and property, and of this call there is little chance anywhere now, except in South Carolina or Louisiana, and in a year more there will be none in Louisiana. Nor is there much likelihood that any President will be permanently armed, as under one of the late Force Acts, with the ordinary police duty of protecting life and property at the South, because this would involve a complete change in the structure of the Government.

In fact, when we lay aside rhetoric and think out the answer to the question, In what way is a Republican Administration such as we have had likely to be more beneficial to the colored people of the South than a Democratic one? we are driven to the conclusion that the only difference would be in the fact that Federal office-holders would probably be more friendly to them under the one than under the other, and that the vague dread which has lingered in the minds of Southerners since the war as to the extremes to which the North might go if roused, would die out more rapidly under a Tilden than under a Hayes—we say more rapidly, for die out it will under either. But then, it is hardly worth while for rational men to allow anything so important as a Presidential election to turn on considerations so vague and shadowy as these. Nor will it do to overlook the fact that there is nothing to which all the corrupt politicians of the Republican party cling so eagerly as to the theory that their dislodgment from power will in some mysterious manner be followed by undefined disasters at the South. It is this which constitutes almost their whole political capital at present; and so frantically do they cling to it that, even when detected in knavery, they try to escape by alleging that some of their accusers or the witnesses or bystanders served in the rebel army—reminding one of the American consul who fought on the Papal side at the battle of Mentana, and who, when called to account for it by Mr. Seward, made answer that the man who saw him fight and reported him to the State Department was an Englishman.

We are, however, very far from asserting or insinuating that the condition of the South ought not to enter into the calculations of a voter who is making up his mind on which side he ought to cast his ballot at the coming election. On the contrary, we think it ought to engage his attention as seriously as, if not more seriously than, any other topic. But we do say, with all the earnestness at our command, that he is not the friend but the enemy both of Southern blacks and Southern whites who votes for the continuance of, or with the design of continuing, that form of protection which General Grant has extended to them through Casey, and Packard, and Durell, and Kellogg, and Ames, and Scott, and Parker. If the success of the Republican ticket is going to perpetuate this shameful and demoralizing system, every honest and patriotic man ought to think twice before voting it; and if anybody infers from the occurrence of such incidents as the Hamburg tragedy that the system ought to be continued, he may be sure that his reasoning apparatus needs overhauling. The reason why we did not think Mr. Hayes's letter satisfactory touching the Southern question was that he was not sufficiently explicit as to the proper remedies for the Southern disease, but simply talked of his desire for peace and conciliation in general terms, such as pacificators of the Grant school have all along used, and which may cover almost any kind of policy. The statesmanlike view of the Southern difficulty is simple enough. It is that a slave society in a thinly-peopled agricultural country,



at the close of sudden emancipation and a bloody civil war, is in a semi-barbarous condition, out of which nothing but the combination of the leading civilizing influences which have raised all other societies will raise it, such as education, growth of population, manufactures, and trade; and that even these influences, powerful and beneficent as they are, can do but little without the aid of the great healer and restorer, Time. The Carpet-Baggers' and Politicians' view of the case is also simple—viz., that here are six millions of "unrepentant rebels," who ought to be in all respects like the inhabitants of Massachusetts, and who only need to be liberally treated with grape and canister and the penitentiary to make the whole South a pleasing reproduction, in the matter of free discussion, brotherly kindness, and general culture, of the town of Concord in that State; and that when they attack negroes their case is exactly like that of a party of Bostonians who should abandon their workshops and warehouses and suddenly begin slaughtering the inhabitants of the next block. We were glad to see that Mr. Wheeler, in his letter of acceptance, gave in his adhesion to the nobler and more rational view of this great national affliction. We wish Mr. Hayes had been equally explicit, so that we might know that when he comes into power his reform of the civil service will consist, above all things, in the representation of the Administration at the South by the best and purest men it can find, so as to satisfy the whites that we are at least honest and worthy of respect, and the blacks that real liberty has no necessary connection with corruption and disorder or the exaltation of ignorance and the abasement of intelligence.

#### THE GENEVA BILL.

WE publish elsewhere two letters on the bill for the distribution of the Geneva money which has just passed the House—one from a gentleman representing the war-premium claims, and the other from a representative of the rights of owners of ships destroyed by the vessels for which Great Britain was held not responsible by the Geneva Tribunal. Our readers will notice that these letters contain very little with regard to war-premiums, or the right to recover for the acts of vessels for which Great Britain has been held not responsible, and as two-thirds of the present swindle consists in the admission of these new claimants, this is rather a serious omission. The letters deal chiefly with the insurance question—which was, it is true, the entering-wedge of the swindle, but which has now dropped to a secondary place. We must again repeat that the war-premium men were expressly ruled out by the Geneva Tribunal, after their cases had been presented and thoroughly argued, and that by the express decision of the Tribunal the limit of England's responsibility was decided to be the acts done by the *Alabama* and the *Florida*, and the *Shenandoah* after she left Melbourne. The only reply made to this by "B." is, 1st, a statement that the Government instructed its agents not to bind it in the distribution of the award; 2d, that several cases of insurance companies' claims were dismissed by a Committee on Claims and one by Mr. E. R. Hoar. There is something so farcical about this that it is difficult to know what to say in reply. Cases of insurance companies may have been thrown out by the Government, though we doubt very much whether Mr. E. R. Hoar ever did anything of the kind, but that the Tribunal had the rights of American insurers before them is so well known that it seems hardly worth while to prove it. As to the instructions of the Government to its representatives, does "B." suppose that the way to find out the meaning of an award of court is by an examination of the plaintiff's instructions to his attorney? The Government might have instructed its counsel to do a great many things with the award—to return the money to England; not to agree to it unless it amounted to at least \$100,000,000; to spend it in warm winter clothing for friendly Indians; but this has nothing to do with what the Court decided.

The argument put forward by "B." that, because the award of the Tribunal covered all the claims referred to them, therefore the

decision was in favor of all the claims, is such an extraordinary one that we are glad to receive his assurance that he honestly believes it to be sound. The nature of the argument may easily be shown by a parallel case. If "B." represented, instead of *Alabama* claims, claims, let us say, growing out of Winslow's recent proceedings in Boston, and these should all be referred to arbitration, and the Court should decide that as to one class they were void for forgery, and as to another that they were void for want of consideration, and as to a third that they were valid and must be paid, the Court would clearly have rendered a decision in satisfaction of all the claims; but would "B." on this account, maintain that the claims decided to be invalid must be paid? To escape from this awkward position, however, our other war-premium correspondent comes forward with an ingenious assertion that there is "no analogy whatever between the ordinary relation of attorney and client before a court" and the relation "between a sovereign nation and its agents" before a tribunal of arbitration. But, if this is so, it is most unfortunate for the war-premium claimants; for the only possible ground on which anybody can get any of the *Alabama* fund is that this relation did exist. If the United States was not the trustee, agent, or attorney of the claimants, it may, if it pleases, keep the money itself; in fact, it is bound to do so, and to apply the fund to the diminution of the national debt, the redemption of the greenbacks, or the reduction of taxation. What our correspondent really means is, that the United States acted as agent in getting the money, and as agent is now requested to pay it over, but that at the same time, being a sovereign government, it cannot be pursued in court and forced to pay it to the real owners.

With regard to the insurance claims, so far from there being doubt that they were presented to and considered by the Tribunal and included in the award, they all along stood precisely on the same footing as the other claims. The first insurance claim was presented February 2, 1863, through Mr. Seward; they are included in the list of claims compiled by the State Department at the close of the war; are referred to in the British counter-case and in the report of the English Board of Trade to Lord Granville (in which the right of subrogation is expressly recognized); in the appendix to the argument of the United States and in the argument itself; and in Sir A. Cockburn's opinion against "double claims." But even if there were no such plain admissions scattered through the case it would make no difference, for the insurers stand in the shoes of the persons insured; and if either class were considered in the award, the fund enures to the benefit of the insurers. This is obvious, or else the insured would be paid twice over: once by the insurers, and a second time by Great Britain. As to the right of subrogation, we may refer our correspondents to the well-known cases of *Comegys v. Vane*, 1 Pet. 193, and *Rogers v. Hosacks' Executors*, 18 Wendell 318, and to the following less technical statement of the law by Daniel Webster in the Senate in 1835:

"As to the portion of the claims now owned by underwriters, it can hardly be necessary to say that they stand on the same equity and justice as if possessed and presented by the owners of the ships and goods. There is no more universal maxim of law and justice throughout the civilized and commercial world, than that an underwriter who has paid a loss on ships or merchandise to the owner is entitled to whatever may be received from the property. His right accrues by the very act of payment, and if the property, or its proceeds, be afterwards recovered, in whole or in part, whether the recovery be from the sea, from captors, or from the justice of foreign states, such recovery is for the benefit of the underwriter. Any attempt, therefore, to prejudice these claims on the ground that many of them belong to insurance companies, or other underwriters, is at war with the first principles of justice."

—which explains tolerably well what "Apprentice" thinks is the shocking disinclination of the insurance companies to refer the case to a court without having the doctrine of subrogation made the "law of the case." They look upon subrogation, no doubt, in the same low, unprincipled way in which a man whose character has been slandered looks upon the law of libel, or the victim of a horse-trade upon the law of sales, or an unlawfully evicted householder upon the law of tenancy.

With regard to the general honesty of our correspondents, or of most of the members of Congress who voted for the bill, we do not doubt it. But this does not affect the question whether it is a swindle or not. That must be determined, as in the case of any other piece of legislation, by the consequences. It is no new thing to find large bodies of men persuaded through their ignorance or passions into doing collectively what no one of them would do individually. The French spoliation claims, three-quarters of a century old, have never been settled to this day, simply through the impossibility of obtaining an act of Congress of which no Congressman can dispute the justice, and in favor of which forty-one Congressional committees have reported. We see the same thing in the use of the appointing power by the Senate, which, acting politically as a whole under a slight sense of responsibility, will confirm men like Packard and Casey to offices for which each individual Senator will at the same time confess privately they are completely unfit. Average legislative morality is not apt to be very high, and it is on this account that most persons who have watched the course of the *Alabama* proceedings have deeply regretted that Congress should have ever had it in its power to abuse the administration of so delicate a trust. The whole matter has now become evidently so confused in people's minds that they do not know what the right or what the wrong is. Probably a large part of the Congressmen voted to pass the bill under the impulse of a feeling that anything which upset the proceedings of the Tribunal was an ingenious way of giving an indirect and deserved blow at England, and would teach her in future to mind her own business.

There is, however, an easy way of settling all disputed points about this Geneva Bill which never seems to have occurred to our correspondents, and which we strongly advise them to take, promising ourselves to abide by the result. When the United States decided to submit its claims against England to arbitration, it appointed as its own member of the court Mr. Charles Francis Adams, who, as our correspondents are aware, was familiar with the history of our whole case from the beginning and had very strong opinions as to England's liability. He is thoroughly conversant with all the principles and facts involved, and with the whole course of the deliberations of the Geneva Court. He knows, if anybody does, whether the Tribunal had before it the claims of insurance companies or not; whether in the award they were treated as having any rights; and whether there was any understanding that the Government could do what it pleased with the money. If Congress had ever really desired to find out what the national honor and a decent regard for the opinion of mankind required them to do with the fund, the first person they would have gone to for information would have been Mr. Adams. They would have enquired of him, Were or were not the insurance claims included in the award? Did the Tribunal which interpreted the Treaty of Washington render their decision as final, or did they expect every single point decided in it to be reversed by act of Congress? If our correspondents want to know about this, let them go to Mr. Adams and ask him, and if he does not inform them that they are engaged in helping on a monumental swindle, we are greatly mistaken.

The disposition of the fund ought to turn upon the broad question, What was the meaning and intention of the whole *Alabama* arbitration? Why did the two Governments, after a long and vexatious correspondence on the claims growing out of the conduct of England during the war, agree by a formal treaty that they should be judicially settled—i.e., settled as ordinary claims between private individuals? Why did they appoint a court to try them, and enact a statute to govern the court in its decision? It was because both Governments were determined to submit all points at issue to this Tribunal—the extent of England's responsibility, the standing in court of the various claimants, and the measure of damages—and to abide by the result. If, when the arbitration was over, either Government could reopen the case, and proceed to decide it anew, it makes nonsense of the whole proceeding, and it would have been better never to enter upon such a farce. England might, in fact, just as well have reopened the case as the United States, and have wholly relieved us of the

disagreeable duty of distributing the money, by declining to pay it at all. Just as the bill passed by the House of Representatives now says this money shall be given to anybody whom we consider to have been damaged by England's negligence, no matter what the court says about it, so the English Government might have said, We have examined the opinion of this court, and we do not think it fair; it decides, on insufficient grounds, that the English Ministry was negligent, and we won't pay a cent of it. For it is to be noticed that the moment the ground of the court's decision is abandoned we are on a perfectly unknown sea. We know neither what classes of claimants have valid claims nor what claims are admissible. All we know is that we have nine or ten millions of dollars to distribute, and whether we give it to claimants who are formally ruled out by the court, or keep it ourselves, or give it in charity, matters very little. In fact, we are rather surprised that, in these days of claims, some worthy class of sufferers like those in Kansas, who have been injured by the devastations of the locust, do not come forward and demand their share of the fund. They have not the advantage of having had their claims actually ruled out by the court, but their claims have the perhaps superior merit of never having been presented at all.

There is one aspect of this *Alabama* business which seems to have escaped the attention of a class which, in an earlier stage of the negotiation, was all agog with excitement and interest over it. When the claims of this country on England first began to be pressed, all the sentimental agitators for universal peace and the "abolition of war" became deeply interested in it, and urged arbitration upon both parties to the quarrel as a sure preventive of all unpleasantness. Here was a great opportunity, we were told, of giving the world a noble example of forgiveness, brotherly goodwill, and love of peace. This opportunity we embraced, and the case was finally settled amid mutual congratulations all over the world. In the eloquent language of Mr. Bancroft Davis, "the commander who had been permitted by Providence to guide some of the greatest military events in history" had thus, "in civil life, assisted in presenting to the nations of the world the most conspicuous example of the settlement of international disputes by peaceful arbitration." The lovers of peace, however, after the payment of the money by Great Britain, seem to have considered the whole trouble at an end, and their entreaties for a calm discussion of the *Alabama* claims have been succeeded by a total silence during the progress of the *Alabama* swindle. But it is dishonesty and disregard for common right such as we are now exhibiting to the world which are the most frequent and natural causes of wars; and if the enemy of mankind had undertaken to devise a scheme for making arbitration and the peaceful settlement of disputes a perpetual laughing-stock throughout the civilized world, he could not have set about it in any better way than we have contrived with the *Alabama* case. The reason why nations in some cases prefer war to any other means of settling disputes is that, whatever objections there are to it, it does settle them by irresistible force from which there is no appeal, and the only reason there is for preferring arbitration is that it substitutes justice, honesty, and settled rules of law for brute violence. But the moment people see that arbitration is used as a cover for a monstrous act of fraud and chicanery, there can be no reason for sensible people feeling anything but disgust at it.

#### THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.—X.

##### MACHINERY.

PHILADELPHIA, July 22.

THE Machinery Department of the Exhibition is not limited to the machines and other articles which are exhibited in Machinery Hall. An exhibition of running machinery required a supply of power, which is furnished by the much-admired Corliss engine in the south transept of Machinery Hall; and nearly every department required an abundant supply of water, and this is furnished by the Worthington pumping engine, which comparatively few visitors have seen. These two engines may be regarded as the powers whose efforts are divided and utilized among the thousands of lesser machines on which more particular attention is often bestowed. The Corliss engine, in its conspicuous place, where it played so



important a part in the ceremonies of the opening day, is the centre of attraction in Machinery Hall. It is indeed a beautiful piece of work—a double walking-beam engine, with the Corliss valve-gear; a fine type of the simple steam-engine, in which, by an adjustable and rapidly closing cut-off, the expansive power of steam is utilized to a very high degree. It is not, however, as many visitors suppose, an engine of extraordinary size; its cylinders are but 50 inches in diameter, while the cylinders of the engines on the steamers *Bristol* and *Providence* have a diameter of 110 inches. Its merit lies in the perfection of its workmanship, the smoothness of its running, and the close approach to theoretical requirements in steam pressure which has been obtained by the Corliss valve-gear. No better illustration of the high esteem in which the Corliss engines are held can be found than the beautiful compliment which is paid to Mr. Corliss by a Belgian builder, P. Van den Kerchove, of Ghent, who exhibits in the Belgian section a pair of horizontal Corliss engines, with the simple statement that he "thought he could not do a greater honor to the celebrated American inventor than by exhibiting at the Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition a pair of engines upon his system built in Belgium upon his plans."

The Worthington Duplex pumping-engine is in a position as obscure as that of the Corliss engine is conspicuous. Necessity required that it should be near the source of water-supply, and it is erected in a neat brick building on the banks of the Schuylkill outside the Exhibition grounds. It stands near the Centennial station of the Philadelphia and Reading R. R., and is so easily reached that it should be visited by all who are interested in this class of machinery; it is a pumping-engine of the most advanced type, built upon the peculiar system first devised by Mr. Worthington, and which is becoming recognized as the correct system for steam pumps. This system consists simply in placing two steam pumps side by side and allowing the piston rod of one engine to open the valves of the other just before completing its stroke; the second engine starts before the first stops, and the first engine remains at rest till the second has nearly completed its stroke, so that both engines are running only during the short period while one is coming to rest and the other is attaining its full velocity; the result is a steady and uniform flow of water, which cannot be obtained by the irregular piston-motion of pumps regulated by fly-wheel engines, and a total avoidance of the violent shocks which mark the close of each stroke of the single direct-acting steam pumps. The Worthington engine at the Centennial does not strike the unprofessional observer at all as the Corliss engine does; it is a simple machine, occupying little space and making little noise; its engines are compound, working the same steam which has first been used in a small high-pressure cylinder again in a low-pressure cylinder of larger diameter. It is a representative engine quite as much as the Corliss, and a beautiful example of a compact machine capable of producing great results.

In Machinery Hall the great preponderance of American exhibits is more apparent than elsewhere. This is largely due, of course, to the heavy character of the articles exhibited, and it could not have been expected to be otherwise. On entering the south transept from the east end, near the main entrance to the grounds, the visitor finds himself in the space allotted to Germany, and the exhibit of that empire shows that it was worthy to be given the most prominent place in the building. The display of working machinery is not large, but the show of manufactured iron, which is the basis of all machinery, is superb. On one side stands the great steel gun whose weight so seriously embarrassed its transportation, but which is at length erected, and stands in complete working order upon its iron carriage; while around it are many other specimens of steel from the Krupp works, including two heavy engine-shafts with cranks—one a rough steel forging and the other, of the same pattern, machine-finished—besides steel rails, boiler-plates, and other evidences that the capacities of the Krupp works are as great in peaceful as in warlike products. Opposite the Krupp exhibit may be seen a collection of rolled beams, including one which is 20 inches deep, or 5 inches larger than has ever been rolled in America, and nearly 50 feet long.

Beyond the German section lies the British, in which but a poor show is made of the great resources of that nation, the allotted space being by no means full. We understand that less than half the British firms who signified their intention of exhibiting in Machinery Hall are now represented. Among the most interesting things to be seen here are the steam road-engines, which have been introduced to a considerable extent as a substitute for animal power in drawing heavy loads abroad, but which are a novelty to us; and we fear they must continue such in the greater part of our country until our roads are greatly improved. Another very interesting feature of the British section is found in the models of the apparatus for switching and signalling at railroad stations, accompanied by drawings

of the yards at some of the principal stations in London, where the system has been carried to a higher state of perfection than has been done elsewhere. This system—which is just being adopted by some of the most important American railroads—consists in connecting, by means of long, movable rods, all the switches and signals of a yard with a row of levers placed in a sort of observatory from which the signalman has a view of the whole ground, and from which the entire movement of trains within the limits of that station is directed.

The American Department not only occupies much the largest space, but comprises by far the most interesting objects to be seen in the building. A very large part of the space is occupied by working machinery, which seems to be attractive to visitors in a direct proportion to the noise it makes, leading us to wonder how large a crowd might be collected if the gunpowder pile-driver, which stands in the southwestern part of the grounds, were only in operation. The same fine finish of the working parts which adds so much to the beauty of the Corliss engine is found on a large portion of the American machinery. In iron-working machinery, the exhibit of the distinguished firm of Wm. Sellers & Co. is perhaps the most remarkable, comprising not only a considerable variety of planers, lathes, and other tools of their manufacture, but specimens of the heavy hydraulic forgings made at their new works at Edgemoor, and also one of the rotary puddling furnaces first introduced at those works. It is needless to say, however, that this is not in operation. Among the lighter machinery, the machines for making envelopes are especially ingenious, though the finest example is to be found in the United States Government Building, where a single machine, occupying no more space than a piano, takes the flat papers, previously cut to shape, gums them, prints the stamp, folds, dries, and delivers the finished envelopes counted into packages of twenty-five. The American Watch Co. of Waltham have a small watch factory in complete operation, which is usually surrounded by a crowd of visitors, though the work is of so minute a character that little can be seen. The collection of looms is very complete and interesting, embracing a considerable number of carpet-loom, in which the figure is determined by a pattern cut in a series of cards, which brings to the surface the properly-colored threads of the warp, and selects from several shuttles the one containing the proper color for the filling. The positive-motion looms, in which the shuttle is not thrown by a blow, but carried by a continuous pressure, running lightly on rollers over the threads of the warp, are well deserving of notice. One of them weaves a coarse cloth twenty-five feet wide, and another, combining the positive-motion and the card patterns, weaves corsets in a single piece, with the various contractions and expansions, and the double fabric forming spaces where whalebones are to be inserted. The Jacquard looms erected by a Paterson silk manufacturer, weaving brocade silk and colored book-marks with the head of Washington upon them, are also very interesting. In the central wing on the south side of the building is a large collection of pumps which, pouring at different angles and heights into a large tank, make cooling suggestions very pleasant in July.

In the matter of locomotives and railway plant, in which the Paris Exposition of 1867 is said to have been so rich, the Centennial Exposition is defective; with the exception of a narrow-gauge engine from Sweden, and some railway cranes from England, foreign nations are scarcely represented. There is a good variety of wrought-iron wheels, steel tires, and other articles which enter into the construction of rolling-stock, but the exhibition of complete cars and locomotive engines is almost exclusively American. In the Carriage Building, an annex to the Main Exhibition Building, are found a number of passenger coaches, including some elegant palace-cars, and in Machinery Hall are about fifteen locomotives, generally of the classes now adopted on the principal trunk-lines for the transportation of heavy freight-trains over mountain gradients. As relics of the past, an old English locomotive, brought to this country more than forty years ago, with two contemporary passenger cars, standing in the southwestern part of the grounds, and one of the little upright cylinder engines, nicknamed "grass-hoppers," which were used on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad in its early days, standing before the Maryland State Building, are interesting, and almost the only representatives of uncommon classes of rolling-stock. I fully believe that the adoption of the truck in both locomotives and cars gives our American rolling-stock a superiority over that of any foreign nation, but in some other respects we are woefully behind them; the weight of our freight-cars, as compared with the loads they carry, is nearly double what it is in Europe, and the use of iron in car frames and bodies, which has been carried to a high state of perfection there, is almost neglected here. It is much to be regretted that the opportunities for studying the light iron constructions of European rolling-stock are not afforded at the Exhibition,

G. S. M.

## PARTY MOVEMENTS IN GERMANY.

GERMANY, July 2, 1876.

THE political vacations are commencing, but our legislators do not return home in a holiday spirit. It is not the Eastern Question which disturbs their minds. Though this appears to be assuming a more and more complicated and serious character, we are still confident that Bismarck will be willing and able to keep Germany out of the scuffle without damage to either her due influence or her interests. Our internal politics are threatening to get out of joint. For some years it has been a settled belief with all the other parties that the days of the National-Liberal party were numbered. Now a rupture within the party was said to be imminent, and again the Government had at last definitively resolved to part company with it. Until a short time ago the croakers only excited the smiles of those whom they were so busy to bury alive. Now, however, there are few who do not admit that the compromise between the Government and the Liberals, on which our home policy has been resting ever since 1866, is really threatened. There are no dissensions of any moment within the party; thus far the danger comes exclusively from without—from what quarter, however, it is hard to tell, or, at least, to tell in one word. For a while, there were some reasons for suspecting that the Government was directly engaged in trying to bring about the formation of a new Conservative party, which should take the helm out of the hands of the National-Liberals. A scene which occurred a few days ago in the Lower House of the Prussian Landtag disposes of this suspicion. Professor Virchow announced to Count Eulenburg the "unqualified opposition" of the *Fortschrittspartei*. The Minister of the Interior took up the gauntlet, declaring that the Government *does* regard this party as decidedly hostile, but then he added that it would gladly see the National-Liberal party gain the ground lost by the former. Neither the situation of the Government nor the personal character of the members of the Cabinet permits of any doubt that such a declaration would not have been given if the Government had taken the initiative in the "new party" movement. But it is not necessarily, therefore, dissatisfied with it. The prevailing opinion seems to be that it as yet retains the attitude of an observer, wishing it success, but loth to engage in it as long as its success cannot be counted upon with a reasonable degree of certainty. This view is the more likely to be correct as the several members of the Cabinet are evidently not quite agreed on this head. There probably is no difference of opinion as to the main question, but neither the intensity with which they wish a change, nor the degree to which they would like to see it extend, is the same.

As yet the National-Liberals show no signs of despondency, though they admit that great exertions will be required to hold their own. Some expressions in their leading organs even seem to indicate that they rather expect to suffer some losses, and will be content if there are not so heavy as to work a complete change in the relative weight of the different parties. Unless something should occur to give a new turn to the public mind before the elections take place, they may indeed be satisfied if they remain in the first place, though with a reduced relative majority. Thus far it is not likely that the days of a new party have already come, but many causes concur to render a more even distribution of the seats, as well in the Prussian Landtag as in the Reichstag, probable. If this should be the result of the next elections, the Government will be in a worse position than at present. Its only complaint now is, that it cannot count with sufficient certainty on a majority; then, however, it would evidently be much more doubtful whether it would find the necessary support, for the nucleus around which the majority has to be formed will be smaller, and, besides, to-day the one party and to-morrow another will have to serve as such a nucleus. In former elections the two Liberal parties have generally supported each other; where the *Fortschrittspartei* was the stronger of the two, the National-Liberals voted for their candidate, and *vice versa*. After the declarations of Professor Virchow and Count Eulenburg, it is very doubtful whether this will or can be so hereafter. Many a seat which, thanks to this alliance, has been occupied by a Liberal, may now be secured by either of the Conservative parties or by the Socialists. Perhaps an attempt will yet be made to keep up the old relations between the two parties. If it should not be done, it will be because the National-Liberals are satisfied that the *Fortschrittspartei* has again completely fallen under the sway of the irreconcilable spirit. One of the organs of the latter has already declared that the Empire is established firmly enough to justify no further compromising with the "reactionary" tendencies of the Government. "There is the rub"—the only too well-known original sin of our nation. Here we have clearly pointed out the most serious feature of the present crisis. All parties, with the single exception of the National-Liberals, are, at an alarm-

ing rate, beginning again to turn their backs upon what Macaulay calls "the essence of politics." The Empire is not threatened with ruin: why, then, not indulge once more in treating measures of mere expediency as questions of principle, and stamp the brand of infamy on compromises? If the Conservatives are less inclined than the more advanced Liberals to take this view of the matter, they, or at least many of them, look upon it as an indignity that for these last ten years the Government has—half willingly, half by compulsion—consented to treat with the Liberals. A *Landrath*—i.e., a Government official—has had the naïve impudence to call upon his brother *Landrath* to wipe this blot from the tablets of Prussian history and exert all their influence for the formation of a "Bismarck party *sans phrase*." The number of those who most heartily concur with Mr. Knobloch is not small, though not many will call the child so indirectly by its right name. This would be no cause for any serious apprehension if other reasons were not at work to draw off a considerable part of the Liberal parties upon side issues, though they have not ceased to be Liberals in their feelings. I purposely say in their feelings, for if they were able really to think on political matters their party allegiance would be unshaken.

One of these side issues is the present economical crisis. No attention is paid to the fact that the crisis is a general one all over the Western world. The fault rests with our legislators—i.e., with the National-Liberals, for they are the most numerous party. As to what the mistake is in the economical legislation the accusers are of course not agreed, and often directly opposed to each other. Workingmen with a slight Socialistic tinge do not join the chorus of the manufacturing interest clamoring for protective tariffs, and the *Agrarier* have nothing to do with either of them. The latter are indeed a new party, and with not much chance of getting very old either. They are distant relatives of your Grangers, striving "to base the economical life of the nation on moral and Christian principles," the corner-stone of which is "the disburdening of landed estate"; as to the tariff question, they are conditional free-traders. The great majority of the party consists of noblemen owning large estates, and in consequence their left grasps the hand of the valiant Mr. Knobloch, while their right holds fast to the tail of the *Kreuzzeitung* charger, which so unmercifully kicks at the radicalism of the apostate Bismarck. That there are special reasons at work to render the economical crisis greater and more dangerous with us than perhaps with any other nation is not to be denied. On this head we could and, it is to be hoped, shall learn something by the humiliating criticisms sent by Professor Reuland on the miserable figure we cut in your Centennial Exposition. Our Socialistic workingmen, though their skulls are by a good many per cent. harder than those of the French, will perhaps, after all, gradually learn that the more hours they spend in declaiming over their beer on their rights, the less German industry will be able to compete with that of other nations and the worse their own condition will become, in spite of all their rights. They have already pitched their declamations half a tone lower since the "founders' honeymoon (the revenging sting of conquered France, hidden in the golden apple of her war indemnity) has ended in countless bankruptcies and a still constantly-increasing number of most scandalous lawsuits. These are, by the way, another embarrassment for the National-Liberals. To render the party, as such, responsible for the era of swindling, as is often done, is simply absurd; but the National-Liberals are, in the main, the party of the *bourgeoisie*, and in this the majority of capitalists are to be found. So, too, they have furnished the majority of "founders," though the high aristocracy has not been slow either to avail itself of the good opportunity. The average man, however, is not satisfied to have such a phenomenon explained by general reasons; the anger over his share of suffering caused by the general calamity, and his cheap, untried virtue, demand a tangible scapegoat to lay his hands upon. Every "founder" who happens to be a National-Liberal in his political convictions is laid to the charge of the party.

Whether, outside of Prussia, the railroad question will serve to injure the party it is as yet too early to say, but that all the particularistic elements will try to improve the present shaky condition of our home politics cannot be doubted. It is true enough that, as the above-mentioned organ of the *Fortschrittspartei* says, we need not fear to see the Empire dismembered. On the other hand, however, the actual crisis is a new proof how far we are yet from having laid its foundation deep and broad enough. It was the law on the *Städteordnung* which led to the exchange of declarations of war between Prof. Virchow and Count Eulenburg. Though this is one of the great, I might almost say fundamental, laws, and in closest connection with the laws on the *Provincialordnung* and *Kreisordnung*, the main fruits of former sessions, the Government has thought proper to make common cause with the conservative House of Lords against the majority in the



House of Commons, with which it had before come to an understanding. So this most important link has not been added to the chain, and the fault lies with the Government. If, in spite of Count Eulenburg's declaration, this should prove to be not an isolated step, but the first in a new direction systematically to be pursued, with them will rest the responsibility of having taken the initiative in closing the era of that spirit of compromise which is and always must be the essence of politics. There is perhaps some reason to regret that the pressure of the *Kulturkampf* has so considerably abated in the course of the last year.

## Correspondence.

### THE GENEVA AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : No one can appreciate more highly than I do the independence and ability of the *Nation*. As matters go with us, its aggressive proclivities are by no means to be regretted. It would be no small public misfortune if its influence, so well won and so widely felt, should be impaired by intemperance in denunciation, unfounded declamation, or the substitution of personal detraction for calm and logical argument.

I wrote to you about the Geneva Award because I knew that your oft-repeated assertion, that the claim for war premiums was concocted by a "noted rascal," and supported by dishonest influences, was wholly untrue. General Butler, whom you take so much liberty in denouncing, did *not* originate either the claim or the bill. Representing, as I do, almost half the claims and almost the only active interest in presenting them, I can assert that, so far as I know, no one in Congress or in the service of the Government has ever received one dollar to enlist their favor. I think, therefore, we may safely dismiss the charge of bribery and corruption. I stated the grounds on which I and my associates honestly based our belief in the justice of the claim for war premiums. It appears, however, that to differ from you is, to yourselves at least, sufficient evidence of moral depravity, and again you descend to personal aspersion. As to the practice of our Government in the treatment of insurance companies, ex-Governor W. B. Washburn writes January 24, 1873 : "While I was on the Committee of Claims (in Congress) for six years, several cases of insurance companies were presented where property had been lost or destroyed on which they had paid the insurance. The Committee always dismissed the claim, on the ground that they were paid for the work, and could not ask the Government to hold them harmless." So also, on the defeat of the Johnson-Clarendon Treaty, the Cabinet declined to present the claim of a large New York insurance company, for the reason that, as its war gains were more than its war losses, it had no claim under international law. The Attorney-General at that time was the Hon. E. R. Hoar. It seems, therefore, that it is no new doctrine that insurers whose war gains are more than their war losses may not be regarded as losers in dealings between nations.

As to the treatment of the subject at Geneva : By the Treaty of Washington, in Article 7 it was agreed that, if a sum in gross were awarded, it should be for all the claims referred to the Tribunal ; in Article 9, that the result of the proceedings of the Tribunal should be considered as a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the claims ; in Article 10, that if a gross sum was not awarded, a board of assessors should determine what claims were valid, and what amount should be paid by Great Britain to the United States on account of the liability as to each vessel. By the instructions of the State Department to the Commissioners of December 8, 1871, "the President desires to have the question discussed as one between two governments. In the discussion of this question, and in the treatment of the entire case, you will be careful not to commit the Government as to the disposition of what may be awarded. The Government wishes to hold itself free to decide as to the rights and claims of insurers upon the termination of the case. If the value of the property captured or destroyed be recovered in the name of the Government, the distribution of the amount recovered will be made by this Government without committal as to the mode of distribution." In the language of the award, "the Tribunal awards to the United States a sum of fifteen and a half millions of dollars in gold as the indemnity to be paid by Great Britain to the United States for the satisfaction of *all* claims referred to the consideration of the Tribunal."

It thus appears that the Tribunal allowed a sum in gross for all the claims presented, including, of course, war premiums : and that our Government received it free of committal, for distribution according to its own judgment ; and that the matter was treated as one between two na-

tions not bound to individual claimants. The pecuniary damage to the United States could be measured only by the value of the property destroyed, and this was paid and received with the condition that our Government was free to decide who were really the losers by the acts paid for.

All merchants are of course aware that in cases of salvage under total loss, the insurers are subrogated to the legal rights of the insured. If the award had been made in accordance with the alternative provided for by the tenth Article of the Treaty of Washington, there might be a possibility of following any particular loss through to the result. But the award was not so made, but under the seventh Article, under different provisions, all the losses being treated as national losses and in gross. To be subrogated is to inherit the legal rights of the insured. But this is not a case of salvage, and the insured having no legal rights, there is nothing to be subrogated.

The subject has, however, been fully and ably discussed at Washington, and the passage of the War-Premium Bill by the House shows that there is at least more than your side to the question—unless, indeed, *all* who voted for the bill were bribed.

Boston, July 12, 1876.

B.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Will the *Nation* allow a few words from "the other side" in regard to the question of the distribution of the Geneva award ?

If the position taken by the *Nation* on this question is correct, then we are in a desperate condition ; we are in perishing need of "reform." On the test-vote in the House on the minority report in favor of the mode of distribution advocated by the *Nation*, 186 members voted : 35 of these men sustained the views of the *Nation*, and 151 voted the other way. On the adoption of the majority report, which the *Nation* condemns *in toto*, 107 voted to sustain the report, and 94 were against it. This minority included 33 of the 35 members who agree with the *Nation*, and 63 who were no doubt in favor of some other nefarious scheme. At least 31 of them voted in favor of covering the whole sum into the Treasury (which I am told is robbery). So that 35 is about the whole number of our representatives, who were acting at that time, who touch the *Nation's* standard of legislative morality. It would be instructive if the names of the gentlemen voting in favor of the right could be printed in one column in your paper, and those of the individuals who voted the other way in the opposite column.

Let me make a list of the representatives who spoke in the main in favor of these two sides, by way of illustration :

*Opponents of "Quibbling Politicians"—i.e., in Favor of Insurance Claims.*—J. Prector Knott, Elias W. Leavenworth, Benjamin A. Willis, James A. Garfield, William P. Lynde, Henry L. Pierce, John M. Davy.

*Men of "Obliquity of Moral Vision"—i.e., Opposed to Insurance Claims.*—Julius H. Seelye, Abram S. Hewitt, Scott Lord, Eugene Hale, William P. Frye, George A. Jencks, Bernard G. Caulfield, George W. McCrary, G. Wiley Wells, William W. Warren, Edwin R. Meade, William Lawrence.

If the *Nation* is right on the question of legislative morals, the better class of citizens should at once call a "conference" to consider these questions : (1) Is not our Government hopelessly and irremediably corrupt ? (2) Ought it not at once to be reorganized *by us* ?

There are two sets of claimants on the Geneva Award Fund who stand in the way of those whose rights you so strenuously advocate. I am well acquainted with one class—i.e., those who suffered loss by the *Nashville*, the *Shenandoah* before she reached Melbourne, and the like. Let me say for them that they have just as complete, just as intelligent, and just as honest a conviction that they are right in the position they take as have any or all the persons who advocate the claims of insurance companies.

Now, a few words on the merits, as suggested in your paper of the 13th instant.

1. The matters referred to in the communication of "G. B. C." present on his statement no facts bearing on the present discussion. The best evidence that none exist which do aid in this debate is found in this, that although "G. B. C.'s" statement came before the Judiciary Committee from the mouth of an insurance president from Baltimore, yet not one of the many advocates of these claims, paid or volunteer, has ever ventured to present the case cited in any authentic or tangible shape.

2. There is no analogy whatever between the ordinary relation of attorney and client before a court, to which both are subject, and that subsisting between a sovereign nation and its agents, as it voluntarily appears

before a tribunal like that at Geneva. To argue from such supposed analogy is to confuse all distinctions and ignore every authority. The moral and legal right of this Government to reserve to itself the question of distribution cannot be successfully impeached upon either principle or authority, and if it could be, then, to that extent, the independence of governments would be at an end.

3. "A." in your article means insurance companies. I deny that in the recorded proceedings of the Tribunal, or in the expositions of the American case, there is to be found any concession or acknowledgment that the insurance companies had any claim for damage or for losses, or that they were entitled to one dollar of the sum awarded.

4. I deny that there is one word in all the papers which shows that the Tribunal awarded one dollar for the insurance claims. Not only did the counsel for our Government plainly tell the Tribunal and the counsel for Great Britain that it was none of their business what we did with the award, but the members of the Tribunal were all too well versed in public law not to know that a proposition on their part looking to final distribution would have been a piece of childish impertinence.

5. I deny that there is one solitary word in the award which indicates in any way what the views of the Tribunal were on the question of distribution. The claim of the insurance companies, wholly barren of equity or moral right as it is, rests upon the application to the award of the technical doctrine of law termed the right of subrogation. It is proposed to affix this doctrine to the award. On this proposition, the insurance companies get thirty-five votes in their favor to one hundred and fifty-one against them in the House. There has yet to be produced a single adjudicated case which supports the exclusive claim the insurance companies now assert.

6. "Professor Seelye's doctrines would not stand for five minutes in any court in the United States or England," you say. The best answer to this assertion is found in this: there has never been a public suggestion by the insurance companies or by those in their interests to refer these matters to a court which has not been accompanied by a provision, either covert or open, which made the doctrine of subrogation the law of the case. I am sure I should have known if any such had been made.

NEW YORK, July 14, 1876.

APPRENTICE.

#### FACTORY SYSTEM FOR INDIAN RESERVATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a previous communication I spoke of a pastoral system for the wild Indians of the Plains, but without giving the subject much elaboration. A factory system for the more advanced tribes, upon reservations, will form the subject of this. The first system of the Government for the management of the Indian tribes has usually been known under this name. Without stopping to explain its character, I propose to show, by experimental proofs, that a system, which this term well enough describes, can be successfully introduced among them, because it is adapted to their condition. Its object is to help them support themselves by giving employment to their own industry and stimulating its exercise.

A few words first upon the present system. Its principal points are:

1. A body of laws to protect the tribes and their lands from the aggressions of white men.
2. An agricultural farm upon the principal reservations (\$20,000 has been the usual annual appropriation for each farm).
3. A blacksmith's shop.
4. A common school.
5. An agency at each principal reservation, to supervise the census of the tribe, to see that the annuities are paid according to this census, that their persons and their lands are protected from aggression, and that other Government appropriations are properly expended. Treaties for the purchase of their lands have accumulated in the hands of the Government large sums of money belonging to the different tribes, of which the interest is paid to them annually; and large sums, in money and in goods, have been paid to certain tribes annually in the past for a limited number of years under the same treaties. The appropriations for agricultural farms, blacksmith-shops, and schools, are in pursuance of treaty stipulations. As all know, the system is nominally administered by a Commissioner of Indian Affairs at Washington; but this Commissioner was never invested with sufficient powers for the proper administration of the office. The power of appointing and removing agents, and of controlling the action of the Commissioner, rests with his superior, the Secretary of the Interior. For the last thirty years, the Indian agents appointed have, in the main, been of the reprobate class. They have been charged with robbing these appropriations, and with all forms of cheating and defrauding. Exceptional cases exist, but their reputation before the country, as a class, is disgustingly odious. Under this system nearly a hundred millions of dollars have been expended by the

Government upon the Indians in the last thirty years, and without any permanent benefit, excepting such as was derived from the schools and the blacksmith-shops. As a system, the failure has been substantially total and complete. Moreover, it has disgraced the intelligence of the country. We have a right to say that a quarter of this money ought to have done a hundredfold more good to the Indian tribes, and that it would have done so under a system more intelligent.

Finally, the system is vicious in its organization. The Commissioner, under the laws, ought to have supreme power over Indian affairs, and be held responsible for results. Inasmuch as the moral character of the American people before the world is involved in the ultimate fate of the Indian race, I venture to repeat the statement, made in a previous letter, that a Department of Indian Affairs ought now to be created by law. With a Cabinet officer at its head armed with the powers of a department, we might yet hope for the formation of an intelligent and efficient system of management. It would prove in the end an economical as well as judicious act, and without a doubt would become an infinite blessing to the Indian tribes as a substitute for the present organization.

The affairs of the Indians are by no means easily handled. They continuously present tough and difficult problems, because the present system, instead of anticipating their wants, simply aims to meet these difficulties as they arise. The Indian tribes must be dealt with as they are—as Indians, and not as though they were white men—and with patience and forbearance. They are not only barbarians, but in a low stage of barbarism, immensely below the plane of civilization. They are incapable of acting in the modes of a civilized race, but they are neither devoid of intelligence nor incapable of appreciating the usual incentives to human action. It will be found possible to stimulate their industry and to lead them gradually into the practice of labor, and with it into an improved plan of life. It is the only possible way to help them to the rescue of themselves. In this work the Indian women will be found to take the initiative, as women have always done in all the stages of human experience and progress in the several families of mankind. The love of property is still a feeble passion in the brains of an Indian; its uses are but little appreciated, and its stimulus is but little felt. Their daily food is their principal concern. The men work with untiring diligence in hunting and fishing when game and fish are their principal food, but they have no conception of property as the representative of accumulated subsistence. While they understand the arts of barbarous life, they have but little knowledge of those of civilized life. Any system of management, therefore, must be adapted to their mental as well as physical condition if success is expected or desired.

The factory system can best be illustrated by an actual experiment, originated and conducted by Mr. Philetus S. Church among the Ojibwa Indians of Lake Superior. If a single man with his own resources could accomplish such a work, the National Government, acting intelligently, ought to do at least as well upon every reservation in the United States, and with but a fraction of the money it now expends annually upon the Indian tribes. The original central home of the Ojibwas was at the great fisheries of the Sault St. Mary, on the outlet of Lake Superior; but the body of the tribe are now in the vicinity of Leach Lake, near the Red River of the North. Several hundred Ojibwas, however, still remain in places upon the south shore of Lake Superior and upon the Canada side of the St. Mary River. Upon these scattered remnants of the tribe Mr. Church's experiment was made. His plan was to draw them together at a new settlement, and, by creating new branches of Indian industry, to enable them to support themselves in a creditable manner, in the management of which he proposed to act as their factor. An isolated position being desirable, that whiskey might be excluded, he selected Sugar Island in the St. Mary River, about twelve miles below the Sault St. Mary, where he first pre-empted and finally purchased seven hundred acres of land. In 1848, he constructed a residence, a warehouse, a store, and a dock, and commenced operations with a few Indian families to whom he had imparted his plans. At a later time he built a steam saw-mill, and taught them how to operate it. Having visited this factory first in 1855, and nearly every summer thereafter until 1863, the following account, taken from memoranda made at the time, is in part from personal observation, but chiefly from facts communicated by Mr. Church.

The staple articles upon which his scheme of Indian labor was formed were, first, the manufacture of raspberry-jam from the wild berries which grow in profusion in this region; second, the manufacture of ornamental articles of birch-bark, consisting of miniature canoes, of boxes, baskets, and fancy work of many kinds; also rugs and floor-mattings of rushes, maple sugar, snow-shoes, ball bats, bows and arrows, moccasins, and ornamental leather and bead work. These were to be sold to tourists. Third,



tamarack boat-knees, which were to be found in abundance for the cutting in the tamarack forests upon this river, and which were in demand at all the ports where lake vessels were constructed. Upon these humble products of Indian industry, and trusting to the markets of the country for their sale, Mr. Church established and carried into successful operation the most useful and instructive experiment with Indian labor ever tried in the United States. After years of persevering labor he was rewarded with success beyond his expectations. He established his own prosperity as well as that of his Indian colony.

The success of the experiment is quickest shown by the results in figures. In 1833, the colony upon the island numbered eight hundred Ojibwa Indians. From a few families in 1818, they had gradually increased to this number, most of whom lived in their own houses, and who were better housed, better clad, and better subsisted than they ever had been in their previous experience. Mr. Church informed me that his sales the previous year (1852), which were wholly of the products of Indian industry, amounted to \$40,000; of which he had paid to them in goods, provisions, and money about \$25,000. The amount of raspberry-jam manufactured had increased from year to year until it reached, in 1862, 24,000 pounds. This was sealed up in earthen jars, 10, 15, 20, and 25 pounds in each, and sent to all parts of the country, where it found a ready sale. At 20 cents per pound, the current price, it produced \$4,800. In 1850, when he first commenced cutting tamarack knees, the whole number obtained was 1,000, but in 1862 it had increased to 10,000. He paid the Indians 60 and 70 cents for each, and sold them at his dock as they ran for \$1. This added \$10,000 to the amount of his sales; but the two articles together were considerably less than half of the annual product. It shows that the mere fancy articles formed a very large part of the productive industry of the island.

No ardent spirits were allowed to be sold or used upon the island, which was an important element in the success of the enterprise. Although whiskey could be obtained in abundance at the Sault St. Mary, twelve miles away, he discouraged its use among them as a fundamental principle of action. Payments at fair and uniform prices for their labor and their fabrics were made at the store, either in goods, or provisions, or money, as they chose; but he discouraged the payment of money, lest they should be tempted to spend it improperly at the village. By integrity and good management mutual confidence became complete, and the fruits of their own industry were applied to their own maintenance.

Mr. Church spoke in the highest terms of the industry of the Indian women. He said they were universally industrious, "the most industrious of womenkind"—that the men also had done well, and were not averse to labor if properly treated and fairly paid. He observed, further, that a marked change for the better had taken place in the social relations of the sexes, and in the treatment of the women by the men. They had erected comfortable houses, furnished them with our furniture, and now used tables and sat down together at their meals.

The experiment which Mr. Church has tried so successfully has a direct bearing, rightly understood, upon the Government management of the Indian tribes. He has demonstrated that Indians will use their industry to improve their condition if a factor can be found to stand efficiently and intelligently between their fabrics and the markets of the country. He has shown, further, that a proper system can be made profitable to the factor as well as to the workmen and workwomen. It needs, then, such a factor at each reservation, to devise for each a plan of industry as well adapted to the condition of each tribe as that of Mr. Church was to the Ojibwas. No two would be alike in the fabrics made, because the circumstances of the tribes are different; but the same destitution, apathy, and unemployed industry will be found at all alike, and the method of dealing with them would be the same in principle in all. Mr. Church alone has the genius and experience to establish a system of Indian industry upon all these reservations in the course of ten or fifteen years, provided the means were placed in his hands by the Government to accomplish the work.

Has the Government any obligation in this matter, it may be asked, especially when millions of our own people are suffering for employment? Assuredly it has, for reasons special to the Indian tribes. It has been the pleasure as well as policy of the Government to force the tribes generally upon reservations, thus changing abruptly their plan of life. In their normal state they were free rangers over broad territories, living by hunting and fishing, but with permanent settlements here and there, where some of them in a slovenly way cultivated maize and plants. Reservations are to them places of stagnation and death, since it forces upon them a life in which they have had no experience. At these reservations, as a rule, there is neither a market nor a demand for any fabric they might manufacture; and

they are incompetent from inexperience to deal in the general markets of the country. It is the precise object of the factory system under discussion to create a profitable connection between their industry and these markets—a connection enjoyed by every American citizen.

From the condition of torpor into which reservation life plunges them, they need awakening by such instrumentalities as Mr. Church devised. The Indian women, by their industry, will solve the problem in every Indian tribe, and raise the Indians gradually into a vastly improved condition, if to their industry a fair chance is given.

With the presentation of this subject still incomplete, I must here leave it to keep this communication within reasonable bounds.

LEWIS H. MORGAN.

ROCHESTER, July 20, 1876.

## Notes.

J. R. OSGOOD & CO. publish this month 'The Echo Club, and Other Literary Diversions,' by Bayard Taylor. —Hurd & Houghton have in press 'The Anatomy of the Head,' by Prof. Thomas Dwight, and the second volume of the 'Proceedings of the American Public Health Association' (1874-75). —A new illustrated "Kensington" edition of Thackeray's works, in twelve volumes; a second edition of Hobbs's 'Architecture'; 'Allen Bay,' an American novel, by S. O. Stedman; 'Diseases of the Skin,' by Louis A. Duhring; and 'On the Use of Ipecacuanha,' by Dr. Alfred A. Woodhull, U.S.A., are among the latest announcements of J. B. Lippincott & Co. —The sixth volume of the centenary edition of Bancroft's 'History of the United States' completes the work (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) The series, in point of handiness and attractiveness, leaves nothing to be desired. —In Col. Hoyt's transcript of the list of donations for the relief of Boston during the operation of the Port Bill, published in the last number of the *N. E. Historical and Genealogical Register*, it is curious to note that South Carolina contributed £1,403 in cash and more than as much again in rice. This sum was exceeded only by the Massachusetts Bay donations (cash £2,213). New Jersey stands third, with cash £594. New York apparently gave no cash, though liberally in other ways. —The Authors' Publishing Company announce for next month 'Common Sense; or, First Steps in Political Economy,' by M. R. Levenson, Ph.D.

—We have received from "Art Student" a rejoinder to Mr. Walter Smith's defence of his Normal Art School, which we shall publish next week.

—A convention of librarians is likely to be held in Philadelphia next October. The profession is awaking to a sense that it is a profession, and beginning to feel that it has as much need of and as much right to an organization as the teachers, or doctors, or dentists, or firemen. Conventions may not produce any very startling results; the papers read may be empty, or dull, or wrong-headed; the few valuable essays may find a tired or inattentive audience; but good-fellowship is likely to be promoted and *esprit de corps* increased, and, in the present case, something will be gained by the public recognition of the existence of the occupation, as one having certain special duties, requiring peculiar aptitudes, and deserving to be entered by an apprenticeship. As long as the chief libraries were those of colleges or historical societies, used by comparatively few readers, of whom a large part might be expected to be trained in investigation and the use of books, it was natural and not objectionable that librarianship should be a refuge for those who had failed in other occupations. With the growth, however, of city and mercantile libraries, dealing with large numbers of borrowers, where promptitude and despatch were all-important, a new class of men were secured—men having, if not business training, at least aptitude for business. And as the work possible to libraries has developed, and they have more and more come forward as companion educators to the public schools, it has further become evident that the man of business is not competent to do all that a librarian can do usefully. All librarians are more or less called on to assist investigation; if not supposed to be omniscient, they are at least expected to know where to look for any bit of information that is wanted. But the town librarian cannot be content with this; he must be qualified to direct the reading of his clientele; he should be in a way the literary pastor of the town; he must be able to become familiar with his flock, especially with the young, to gain their confidence, to select their reading, and gradually to elevate their taste. Like a minister, he must be content with slow progress and meagre results. It is only by flowery paths and gentle ascents that he can lead them from Braddon to Scott and from Tupper to Tenny-

son. But he will keep his object always in mind, and will never be satisfied but as he sees the percentage of fiction read decreasing and the proportion of travels, and history, and science, and philosophy increasing. There are librarians who have effected this, some by annotated catalogues, some by personal intercourse (that is, as it were, by the sermon and by the pastoral visit). If they can be brought together and made to tell their methods, others will be moved to imitate them. This, at least, was the result of the Convention of 1853 at New York—a meeting which has probably never been heard of by the greater part of the present generation of librarians. Frequent conventions may become wearisome, but one every twenty-three years can certainly be endured by the most indifferent of the profession.

—In his new book, 'Lessons from Nature,' which is throughout marked by a highly controversial, not to say capricious, spirit, Mr. St. George Mivart has reprinted in full his reply to the late Mr. Chauncey Wright's criticism on his former work, 'The Genesis of Species.' Mr. Wright's criticism appeared in the *North American Review* for July, 1871, and Mr. Mivart's reply was originally published in the same *Review* in April, 1872. Mr. Mivart states as the reasons for the present republication of his reply the fact that Mr. Darwin had Mr. Wright's criticism republished in England and very extensively circulated, thereby showing that he "must have thought Mr. Chauncey Wright's defence of him extremely important"; and, further, the fact that "I [Mr. Mivart] attach a very special value to the opinions formed in the United States, . . . and am therefore anxious that my reply to the one hostile critic I have there should be as widely diffused as possible." There can, of course, be no sort of objection to Mr. Mivart's giving this new circulation to his reply; but it is to be regretted that in thus reprinting it he omits to mention that in the number of the *Review* following that in which it was first published appeared a long and able rejoinder from Mr. Wright. In this rejoinder Mr. Wright not only effectively maintains the ground he had previously taken, but points out that in one important passage Mr. Mivart had misquoted Mr. Wright's words so as to obscure, if not to pervert, their meaning. In the reprint of his reply in Mr. Mivart's new volume, we regret to find the misquotation again making its appearance, and no attention paid to the fact that its erroneous character had been pointed out four years ago. This is the more noticeable from the fact that in his reply Mr. Mivart had brought a similar charge against Mr. Wright, and Mr. Wright in his rejoinder had fully acknowledged his carelessness in the omission of two words from a citation—words, however, which did not alter the character of the passage or affect the argument from it. Mr. Mivart's carelessness, or want of candor, ought to be held in mind in the formation of those opinions in the United States to which Mr. Mivart professes to attach "a very special value."

—Who was the "friend," mentioned by Longfellow, to whom Paul Revere entrusted the delicate and perilous task of hanging out a lantern,

"aloft in the belfry arch  
Of the North Church tower as a signal light,"

on the night of the famous ride

"To every Middlesex village and farm"?

At the centennial celebration of this event in Boston a year ago last April, it was stated that this friend was the sexton of the church, Robert Newman, and the evidence connecting him with the transaction, we are informed, was the testimony (1) of his son; (2) of an old lady, now 90 years of age, the grand-daughter of John Newman, a brother of Robert; (3) of Joshua B. Fowle, who remembers Paul Revere as visiting at his father's house with other patriots of the time; and (4) of William Green, who lives at the North End, in Boston, and whose sister, eighty-four years old, remembers Robert Newman. All these persons state that "it was the universally-received opinion that Robert Newman displayed the signal lights." But the *Boston Advertiser* of the 20th of July publishes a letter from Mr. John Lee Watson, of Orange, New Jersey, who claims the honor of hanging out the signal for a kinsman, John Pulling. Mr. Watson states that Pulling was a warden and vestryman of the North Church; that he was a member, with Paul Revere, of the Boston Committee of Correspondence, Inspection, and Safety; that he was one of a committee, again in company with Revere, appointed "at a meeting of freeholders and other inhabitants of the town of Boston, to collect the names of all persons who have in any way acted against or opposed the rights and liberties of this country"; and that Revere and Pulling were "intimate friends from boyhood and always acted together." Paul Revere states, in his 'Narrative,' that he "called upon a friend and desired him to make the signals." Mr. Watson argues that Revere would scarcely have referred to the church sexton as his "friend," nor would he have entrusted "that most critical and hazardous part of the whole enterprise" to any such person, especially as both Revere

and Pulling belonged to a union, of about thirty persons, formed to watch the movements of British soldiers and Tories, and every member of which was solemnly sworn not to reveal any of their transactions to any other persons than those belonging to committees chosen by themselves, and to these committees only Revere, Pulling, Hancock, Adams, and a few others belonged. We now come to one of the strongest points of Mr. Watson's letter. The sexton, Newman, suspected of hanging out the lights, was arrested and questioned, but protested his innocence, and declared that "the keys of the church were demanded of him, at a late hour of the night, by Mr. Pulling, who, being a vestryman, he thought had a right to them; and after he had given them up he went to bed again." Newman, thereupon, was released; but before Pulling could be arrested he was secretly warned, and escaped in the disguise of a laborer, reaching Nantasket in safety. Mr. Watson makes up his account—when his statements are of facts not already on record—chiefly from the letters of "a kinswoman," the grand-daughter of John Pulling, who writes with clearness and great positiveness; and also from his own recollections of conversations with his mother and aunt, who were sisters-in-law of Pulling.

—In *Notes and Queries* there are now appearing extracts from the MS. autobiography of the Rev. Jonathan Boucher, Rector of Annapolis and, after his return to England, Vicar of Epsom. He taught school prior to his preferment to the rectory of St. Anne's, Annapolis, in 1770, and among his pupils was the stepson of Washington, "and this laid the foundation of a very particular intimacy and friendship, which lasted till we finally separated never to unite again on our taking different sides in the late troubles." The rector's view of Washington differs greatly from that generally taken. "At Braddock's defeat, and every subsequent occasion throughout the war, he acquitted himself much in the same manner as, in my judgment, he has since done—i.e., decently, but never greatly." I did know Mr. Washington well; and . . . I cannot conceive how he could otherwise than through the interested representations of party have ever been spoken of as a great man. He is shy, silent, stern, slow, and cautious, but has no quickness of parts, extraordinary penetration, nor an elevated style of thinking. In his moral character he is regular, temperate, strictly just and honest (excepting that as a Virginian he has lately found out that there is no moral turpitude in not paying what he confesses he owes to a British creditor), and as I have always thought religious, having heretofore been pretty constant, and even exemplary, in his attendance on public worship in the Church of England. But he seems to have nothing generous or affectionate in his nature." However prejudiced the reverend rector might be in one way, he was not in another. He notes that "on the 24th of November, 1765, I baptized in St. Mary's Church one hundred and fifteen negro adults; and on the 31st of March, 1766, being Easter Monday, I baptized three hundred and thirteen negro adults, and lectured extempore to upwards of a thousand. I question whether so extraordinary an accession to the Church of Christ by one man, and in one day, can be paralleled even in the journals of a Popish missionary. . . . I had towards the last of my ministry there thirteen black communicants."

—Of the Loan-Exhibition of pictures now open in this city for the joint benefit of the Metropolitan Museum of Art and the National Academy of Design we made mention in No. 576. A study of the catalogue of the paintings at the latter institution is not without interest, if it be granted, as it readily will be by those familiar with the best private picture-galleries of this city, that the collection is fairly representative of the taste of our collectors. The catalogue itself is poorly edited and poorly printed; it is entirely unworthy of comparison with the neat workmanship of the catalogues of the South Kensington loan-exhibitions; it is full of blunders; the foreign names are shockingly mangled; M. Couture appears three times as Conture; M. Toulmouche is Foulmouche; accents are constantly left out, notably in the names of MM. J. L. Gérôme and Jules Dupré; even the name of one of the committee on printing is misprinted in both places where it occurs; in the list at the end of the artists represented an American painter figures once as "Hicks, T. (N. A.), New York," and again two lines below as "Hicks, Thos. (N. A.), New York," while the deceased English artist, T. S. Cooper (R. A.), is seen in the same list as "Cooper, R. A., London, dec'd." as though the initials of his academic honors were those of his own name. The usefulness of the catalogue would be greatly increased if, in the revision which these manifest and manifold errors demand, there should be appended to the name of each artist in the final list the catalogue-numbers of his pictures—thus, for instance: "Cabanel, Alex., Paris—Nos. 97, 129, 167, 219, 298, 309, 375." If this were done, admirers of the artist would be able to see at a glance how many of his pictures there were on exhibi-



tion, and would not be likely to overlook, for example, because it is hung in a corner of a corner room, No. 375, "A Venetian Lady," here miscalled the "Power of Music," just as M. Gérôme's "Pollice Verso," No. 206, is here miscalled the "Gladiators." Taking the catalogue, however, as it is and not as it might be, we find it contains three hundred and ninety-eight numbers by two hundred and twenty-two artists, of whom all but twenty-three are living. Forty-five of the painters are Americans, and of these thirty-five belong to the National Academy. There are two R.S.A.s and but one R.A. Indeed, there are only five Englishmen at all, even if we include the Dutchman Tadema and the American Boughton, both now domiciled in London. Düsseldorf is represented by eleven artists, Rome by thirteen, Munich by sixteen, and Paris by one hundred and eight, or nearly half the whole number (222), and more than double the number of Americans (45). And the French painters are represented as generously individually as they are nationally. M. Bouguereau—whose handiwork to the casual visitor appears omnipresent—heads the list with ten pictures, M. Cabanel has seven, M. Gérôme six, Zamacofs five, M. Schreyer four. There are but two works of M. Meissonier, and but one of M. Vibert. Of the American painters Mr. Boughton runs M. Bouguereau hard, having nine numbers to the Frenchman's ten; Kensett and Mr. Huntington have seven each, and Mr. Church and Mr. Eastman Johnson six each. If there should be a similar exhibition held here in ten years' time, a comparison of these figures with those to be obtained from the catalogue then would afford some indication of the change of taste and of the progress our picture-buyers may have made towards the appreciation of the best in art.

—Mr. S. J. Whitmee, an agent of the London Missionary Society, writes to *Nature* (of June 29) from Samoa to correct some popular notions as to the rapid disappearance of the inhabitants of Polynesia. The error has arisen, he says, from extravagant estimates of the population of different islands made by early visitors and residents, due to their inferring a proportionate population in the interior from the inhabitants of the coast, who really constituted the whole. That diminution has taken place since the first contact with civilized races is true, he continues, but from personal knowledge he feels convinced that the people were rapidly decreasing before such intercourse began. Nor is the decrease now universal, for if civilization has done something to accelerate, Christianity has done much to retard it, as is seen from the partial or complete cessation of native wars; the discontinuance of human sacrifices and even of cannibalism; the greater respect paid to women, which leads to their being relieved from drudgery; the increased care of infants and of aged people; and the growth in industry, by which the supply of food is made more regular. Nevertheless, on the whole, the Polynesians are losing ground, partly in consequence of the introduction of epidemic diseases, like the measles, which, for instance, decimated the Fiji Islands shortly after they had passed under the British rule, the King having brought it in his suite from Australia, whither he had been taken on a royal excursion; and partly and principally from the destructiveness of ardent spirits and syphilis—in the Sandwich Islands, of leprosy also. Quarantine and a prohibitory duty on spirits are the remedies which Mr. Whitmee suggests for some of these evils.

—M. Taine has just published in the *Journal des Débats* an interesting critical letter upon George Sand. He observes, first, that she is a literary figure whom we have altogether exceptional facilities for knowing and describing.

"In no case can one better apply the method of Sainte-Beuve, who, to understand a great individual, employed physiology, noted the links of consanguinity, observed the parents and the ancestors. We know with details the father and the mother of George Sand, and her grandparents to the fourth generation; we have their letters, we know their private life, we can follow from the King Augustus [of Poland], through the Maréchal de Saxe, Madame Dupin, the *commandant* Dupin, down to George Sand herself, the transmission of an original temperament, of particular faculties which, exaggerated, attenuated, renewed, or transformed by successive 'crosses,' attained their highest development and their most perfect harmony in the final genius who summed them up. There is not in human history another example equally instructive, a collection of materials so rich and going back so far, a case so precious for the light it throws upon psychological heredity."

M. Taine adds that upon George Sand herself information is abundant, and that her 'Histoire de ma Vie' is a complete record of the growth of her mind as well as of her external circumstances during her younger years.

"Then come her novels and her whole work, more than a hundred volumes, of which the weakest deserves a study, for she never wrote simply to write. Even into a tale of thirty pages she put a thought. No one has ever more continually and more sincerely turned over grave questions; she was possessed and beset by them; and in following the series of her novels one might by their testimony write the moral and philosophic history

of the age. With a very fixed stock of persistent beliefs and aspirations, she always continued to develop; among her contemporaries she is with Sainte-Beuve almost the only one who voluntarily and deliberately renewed herself, enlarged the circle of her ideas, refused to rest content with answers made once for all. Better still, and through the simple progress of an intelligence which was always active, she passed spontaneously from bad answers to good ones."

She passed, says M. Taine, from the stormy and rebellious temper of her younger years to the quiet conservatism of her later ones; "without lowering her ideal, she reconciled herself to the regular course of life," accepted "work, good sense, reason, society, marriage, the family, all useful, salutary, or necessary things." M. Taine says (justly to our mind) that if George Sand's novels have not the solid realism of those of Balzac, their species is a higher one. "Only, to relish them, you must put yourself at a certain point of view, interest yourself in the portrayal of a finer and better humanity. That of Madame Sand's novels is two or three degrees superior to ours; the men have more talent and genius, the women more heart and devotion, than among ourselves; they all talk better and more eloquently than we; they are framed in a finer scenery, surrounded by landscapes and apartments that have been artistically arranged; it is an ideal world, and to keep up our illusion the writer tones some things down, suppresses others, and often, instead of painting an individual figure, sketches a general outline." M. Taine goes on to say that another merit of her novels is that they each contain, as a groundwork, "a general idea, a philosophic, religious, or moral thesis, a problem of the heart or the conscience, or a problem of education." He adds (but perhaps his confidence on this point is erroneous) that "it is these abstractions, these *tirades*, that will obtain for George Sand a permanent and sympathetic attention when the minute copies of the cleverest painters will have ceased to be understood, or have become mere documents for the historian." Lastly, M. Taine pays a vigorous tribute to Madame Sand's style:

"It places her beyond comparison. . . No one, since the classics of the last two centuries, has had so much eloquence, and this eloquence is never misplaced, for it is the proper tone of an artist who is handling 'questions' and who intentionally gives his characters genius or talent. . . Nothing is forced, wanton, unequal; everything is abundant, spontaneous, and sound. Towards the middle of her career she had worked herself free of a remnant of a tendency to declamation, and had ceased to think of 'la phrase'; it is probably to her rustic novels and her studies on simplicity of style that she owes this reform. By the same stroke she had discovered a new and exquisite literary form. To my mind, allowing for the distance between poetry and prose, her rustic tales are almost equal to the 'Hermann and Dorothea' of Goethe. Their style is unique—as Greek as that of Goethe, with this difference: that Goethe's verses seem imitated from Homer, and that George Sand's narrative appears to have been inspired by Xenophon."

He finds an analogy between her dialogues and those of the 'Cyropædia,' and he says in conclusion that "in a civilization like ours, beneath such an encumberment of abstractions and theories, in the midst of a literature so complicated and so composite, this creation, this renovation of the primitive tongue, is an unexampled *tour de force*. No portion of the immense work of George Sand gives so high an idea of the originality of her genius and the flexibility of her mind."

#### RECENT FOREIGN WORKS ON AMERICA.\*

THE works of intelligent foreigners upon this country will always possess a peculiar interest. Our own historians are all more or less affected by the glamour which surrounds the origin of this unique experiment in government and event in history; but the case of De Tocqueville shows how much value is attached to the calm judgment of a competent European observer. These requirements are clearly fulfilled in the case of Mr. Kapp. Born in Westphalia in 1824, he continued in the Prussian legal service (and we know what that requires) till 1848. Quitting Germany after the Frankfort rising of September 18, he passed some time in Brussels, Paris, and Geneva, and from 1850 to 1870 made his headquarters in New York, acting part of the time as Commissioner of Emigration, and again making himself familiar with, as he says, a majority of the States, not by mere railway travel, but on horseback, by road conveyance, and by sojourn among the inhabitants. The one moment when he was tempted to become an American citizen was at the first formation of the Republican party, but, finding himself too strongly drawn homeward, he has returned to Germany, and sat since 1872 as a member of the German Parliament. His book has a threefold interest for us: first, being written in German and published in Berlin, it is a report to his nation of the country with which they are perhaps more closely connected than with any but their

\* Aus und über Amerika. Thatsachen und Erlebnisse. Von Friedrich Kapp. Berlin: Julius Springer; New York: F. W. Christern. 1876.

own, and towards which so many are looking as their future home; secondly, it is a message to Americans from that vast tide of emigration which is swelling our population, with us but not yet of us, and still strangers in language, habits, and modes of thought; and lastly, as remarked, it gives the comments of a cultivated observer upon the current events of the New World.

The two volumes comprise a series of essays written at different times of Mr. Kapp's residence here, some in the form merely of a diary and others rising to the level of historical composition. The style is everywhere easy and attractive, and often brilliant, and the matter such as will repay even the exertion of reaching it through the foreign medium. Under the head of "Historical Retrospect" comes first an essay upon Washington, a very fair and well-balanced estimate of his character, but chiefly remarkable for the graphic way in which it sets forth the two theories of Hamilton and Jefferson—the Ormuzd and Ahriman, the spirits of good and evil—the two finger-posts pointing out the separate roads open to the new Republic. As an amusing touch of nationalism, we have noted the reflection that Quebec marked the downfall of France in America as Sedan did in Europe. It is also rather a striking observation how small were the causes of grievance of the colonists compared to those which led to the falling-off of the Netherlands from Spain, and correspondingly how moderate were the sacrifices and the spirit of determination which were really displayed by the American people.

Under the head of "Benjamin Franklin," a most interesting article, our author, usually calm and self-possessed, gives way to enthusiasm. Not only Izard, Morris, and Silas Deane, but such men as Jay, Laurens, and John Adams are represented merely as difficulties with which Franklin had to contend. In the recently published biography of John Quincy Adams, it is made to appear as if Count Vergennes was actuated by a desire of getting as much unfair advantage out of us and giving as little as possible, while, according to Mr. Kapp, Franklin had the greatest difficulty in softening the offensive manner of Mr. Adams, "professing himself entire confidence in the purity of the motives of M. Vergennes, who had not failed to give them satisfaction in any well-grounded demand." The articles upon the Declaration of Independence and the Monroe Doctrine are chiefly suited to the German market, as the matter, though very well presented, offers but little that is new to Americans.

The crowning portion of the work, in its interest for the American reader, is that upon the German Emigration. Those who remember Mr. Kapp's book upon the 'Trade in Soldiers for America by the German Princes,' know his power of presenting the romantic side of history, and in the present instance neither material nor treatment is wanting. A comprehensive view is given of this mighty movement of nations, not less extensive in itself or important in its consequences than that of the multitudes which poured "from the loins of the frozen North" to the destruction of the Roman Empire. If the circumstances which Mr. Kapp narrates as simple facts are true, the trade in emigrants in the last century between Germany and New York bore a strong resemblance to the African slave-trade. Even down to the fourth decade of this century, the fate of the unfortunates who trusted themselves to the emigrant ships was simply horrible, and as late as 1868 and 1869 the cases of the ships *Leibnitz* and *Jam's Foster, jr.* showed that effective restraints upon the greed of ship-owners were not yet established. The North German Confederation first took the matter in hand, and the transfer of the trade to steamships with their better arrangements and shorter passages has affected great ameliorations. It is hard to say whether the picture given is more ludicrous or ghastly of the fate which up to 1847 awaited the German emigrant, ignorant of the language, on his arrival at New York; of the bands of swindlers and thieves who passed him along from thence to Albany and on to Buffalo, till, pretty thoroughly fleeced, he arrived at his final resting-place. Mr. Kapp relates with great approval the arrangements adopted by the Commissioners of Emigration, though in a note of 1875 he intimates that these officers are also falling into the political machine. Of all the materials for a humorous and sensational novel which lie ready for the hands of a *Diedrich Knickerbocker*, we know of none equal to Mr. Kapp's account of "the German settlements in Western Texas and the Mayence Union of German princes, counts, and gentlemen." But apart from the interest of the story, he uses it to point the contrast between the principles of colonization of the Teutonic and Latin races. The latter go out under the auspices of some high officials, are always looking for aid from home and to return thither, will not go to work, and fade miserably away. The former are traders or adventurers, who never look back, but, trusting to themselves, fight their way, often through incredible suffering, to independence. These Texas settlers went out about 1845 under the auspices of

an august association which had a considerable, though quite insufficient, capital, and in comparative comfort. Inevitable bad management cut off their resources and plunged them into distress; but they would not help themselves, clamored about broken promises, lived upon the crumbs of assistance furnished them, nourished false hopes, and went from bad to worse, till drunkenness and rioting shared the field with disease and death. Strange to say, salvation came from ruin. One morning, Von Meusebach, who seems to have been of that type of heroes of which the Indian Mutiny produced samples of English blood, announced that the company they had trusted had failed and could do nothing for them. After the first burst of execration and despair, the survivors went to work for themselves. In 1870, New Braunfels, a thriving farming and manufacturing village of 2,261 inhabitants, celebrated with a festival the twenty-fifth anniversary of its foundation. In an article upon "The Position and Future of the German Element," Mr. Kapp conducts an argument, which would not be necessary for an American, but throws light upon German aspirations, to show that the emigrants cannot form a permanent national element, but must, in the second or third generation at furthest, be absorbed in the general result of the many ingredients of race.

The second volume opens with a department of "Affairs Municipal and Ecclesiastical," and the cheek of every American must tingle with shame that such an account of the New York City Government can be published uncontradicted in Germany. Mr. Kapp's view tends, however, to confirm our impression that the conservative elements of New York hold the vast preponderance of real power, neutralized by utter want of organization. The respectables try to keep on with the absurd checks and balances which are "the theory of our institutions," while the Democrats have sought the fundamental principles of history and human nature in the "boss" system. When the other side make up their minds to a "boss" of their own—that is, a responsible government with the most searching publicity and directness of criticism—they will beat their opponents out of the field. We cannot agree with Mr. Kapp that any relief "can be expected from outside power," as the worst woes of New York date from its recourse to Albany. It is a case for his favorite maxim, "Help thyself." Mr. Kapp is, for a German, very mild in his views of the relations of the Roman Catholic Church and the Union. Doubtless, that body is accumulating large property, but our danger from it is not much more nor less than from other private interests, railroad rings, tariff combinations, etc., etc. Some stronger government has got to be arrived at to protect the many from the few, and, if not "responsible," it will sooner or later be "irresponsible."

Under the section, "Cotton is King" and "A Diary," we begin with the rise of the cotton power, and proceed to a graphic contemporary account of ante-war politics and the political side of the great struggle, most of which is for men of mature age "infandum renovare dolorem," but for men well towards the prime of life, merely an historical retrospect. The volume closes with an account of the early Spanish invasions of Florida and a graceful sketch of Havana in 1852—a period when, to the present writer and his college comrades, that port was chiefly noted for the possession of an Italian opera company which annually bestowed upon New York and Boston better specimens of the art than have been heard there since. To sum up the whole, we think that Americans have no reason to complain of the presentation of themselves and their country which has been served up for the subjects of the German Empire.

Of the numerous books upon America called out by the centennial year, Mr. Becker's is one of the most conspicuous; being marked at once by considerable ability, by great industry in the collection of materials (provided they tell to the discredit of this country), and by the darkest and most depressing aspect of our affairs. It is preceded by an introduction by Friedrich von Hellwald (the author of a *History of Civilization*) in the same dismal strain. We have not read the whole book—it would be too disheartening a task—but so far as we have read we have not met one word or expression which would light up the pervading gloom, or would hint that we had a single virtuous statesman or a single encouraging feature, whether in public or in private relations. A preface addressed to Carl Schurz takes that gentleman roundly to task for venturing to express the hope that we still have a chance as a nation. Mr. Hellwald's introduction is devoted mainly to two subjects, the Press and the Census; and it is characteristic enough of the temper of the work that Gen. Walker is only mentioned to be cited in support of some unfavorable opinions, and that his excellent services as head of the Census are not hinted at. Among other things, we are told that the rising in defence of the Republic in the late

\*Die hundertjährige Republik: Sociale und politische Zustände in der Vereinigten Staaten Nordamerikas. Von John H. Becker. Augsburg: Lampart & Co. 1876. New York: L. W. Schmidt.



war was no work of patriotism—perhaps because the Republic had better perish and be done with it—and are assured that we are turning into Red Indians as fast as we can. Books of this type—of which Mr. Julian Hawthorne's 'Saxon Studies' is a specimen—do nothing to promote either good feeling or, what is more important, a good understanding between nations. Mr. Becker will undoubtedly, however, succeed in the object which was obviously foremost in his mind—and which is, indeed, strongly hinted at in the preface—of making the people of Germany better contented with their institutions, and thus checking the current of emigration. Their praiseworthy enthusiasm for their new empire will receive new stimulus from the assurance that they have nothing to learn or to emulate on this side of the water.

A very different book is M. Simonin's; a book, on the whole, the most profitable reading for Americans of all upon our list after Mr. Kapp's, because it is in a tone of serious but not unsympathetic criticism, and because the author was able to go deeper under the surface than is usually possible to a foreigner. M. Simonin, a prominent writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, made five visits to this country, not, it would appear, merely as a traveller but for special business purposes. Observations made in this way—that is, when the journey is not its own end, but has definite objects in the way of business or study—are by far the most valuable. Sir Charles Lyell's travels in this country afford a good and well-known example. Such a traveller really sees below the surface, which is impossible to any mere outside study, however ostentatiously philosophical. This book is devoted mainly to two subjects—the study of the mineral resources of the country, which appears to have been the author's principal object, and a description of the charitable institutions of New York. Apart from these, it is almost confined to the three cities of New York, Chicago, and St. Louis. An interesting chapter is devoted to "the West," where the author appears to have visited the rural districts as well as the cities. He pays comparatively little attention to politics, but a good deal to society.

The other books named below belong rather to the ordinary type of books of travel, of which they are fair specimens; all being the work of capable observers and men of impartiality and good temper, but with no pretence to any but a cursory view. Lieut. von Versen is a cheerful traveller, quite disposed to look upon the favorable side, and on the whole presenting a pleasant picture of his adventures in America; although, it must be confessed, he cannot forgive the authorities of Massachusetts for the difficulty he experienced in finding the wherewithal to quench his thirst. He gives considerable space to an account of our institutions, and does it clearly and on the whole accurately; he would convey a wrong impression, however (p. 225), as to the complete exclusion of the States from interference in city affairs. The only organizations in our system invested with substantial and original power are the several States and the United States. The author is better in politics than in literature; the only four authors mentioned by him are the poet Longfellow, the philosopher Franklin, the historian Bancroft, and Washington Irving. A considerable part of the book is taken up with South America; our Western States receive the largest share of attention.

The "Frenchman in America" is a lively Parisian, whose book consists for the most part of detached memoranda, jotted down with scarcely any attempt at connection, except that of sequence in time. A journalist by profession, he has a quick eye for what is amusing, and a correct judgment of the surface, and his observations and criticisms, good-natured enough and not censorious in their morality, represent fairly the average journalistic type.

M. Xavier Eyma, since his book was received, has died at the age of sixty. He was born in Martinique, and had written several novels relating to America. He here makes a rather more serious and continued narration than does M. Toutain; introduces with a graphic pen several entertaining and romantic stories—among them a thrilling tale of adventure in the great "caverne de Monmouth" of Kentucky—and accompanies the account of his journey with comments which, for the most part, display good sense and good temper. Both these books will be entertaining summer reading for any one who wishes to see the impression made by his country and countrymen upon intelligent Frenchmen, who can profit by fair criticism and is not too thin-skinned to enjoy banter or accept rebuke when deserved.

<sup>1</sup> 'Le Monde Américain: Souvenirs de mes Voyages aux Etats-Unis. Par L. Simonin.' Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern. 1876.

<sup>2</sup> 'Transatlantische Streifzüge: Erlebnisse und Erfahrungen aus Nordamerika. Von Max von Versen.' Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1876.

<sup>3</sup> 'Un Français en Amérique. Yankees, Indiens, Mormons. Par Paul Toutain.' Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern. 1876.

<sup>4</sup> 'La Vie aux Etats-Unis: Notes de Voyage. Par Xavier Eyma.' Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern. 1876.

*The Life of Alexander Hamilton.* By John T. Morse, jr. 2 vols. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1876).—Mr. Morse has undertaken to give in the volumes before us what we have not yet had—a popular life of Hamilton. The spirit in which he has written is that of frank panegyric, and it is a manner of dealing with the subject which it is difficult for the coolest criticism to find fault with. Flaws may no doubt be discovered in Hamilton's career and character. It is a fact that he had a perhaps unnecessary quarrel with Washington; he made a bargain with Southern members of Congress for the assumption of State debts by the General Government; he engaged in a bitter newspaper warfare with an unscrupulous enemy who was a member of the same cabinet with himself; in his attack on Adams he made use of information he ought to have held sacred. But when in a time of civil war, followed by anarchy and intestine dissensions, such blemishes are all that can be found in the fame of one of the principal actors on a great public stage, who has left such a name behind him as Hamilton's, it is not too much to say that it would be almost a piece of presumption to enquire too curiously how such a life might have been improved. For, on the other side, it must be remembered that from boyhood to his death there was no field of human activity in which he engaged (and he engaged in many) in which he did not merely distinguish himself, but easily rise to a level with men who devoted the energies of a lifetime to success. As a soldier, he was, when barely out of his teens, the trusted aid and adviser of Washington; as a lawyer, he can only be compared with Marshall; as a financier, he produced a policy which shows that had he devoted his life to such subjects he might have become the foremost economist of his age; as an orator, we know that his eloquence was not merely so inspiring that it lifted crowds to the height of his own enthusiasm, but so convincing that it was able to destroy an adverse majority of a representative assembly on a question purely addressed to the reason, and turning upon considerations of public policy; while, as a writer, his papers on the Constitution remain to this day among the best dissertations on the art of government contributed to political literature since the Middle Ages. Hamilton's general excellence, indeed, in everything he undertook is a puzzle. He had almost no training. At the age of fourteen we find him conducting the business of a West India merchant; at seventeen, he addresses a public meeting, and he enters college, public life, and the army almost at the same time. With such precocity as this it would not have been surprising had his career proved commonplace, or had it proved successful merely in some one direction. But success in everything, and almost at once, and such success as Hamilton attained, is an extraordinary sequel to this early development. We can recall no other instance of the kind. Hamilton's fame, too, seems likely to endure and to grow. The great democratic wave which has since his day swept over the country, has hid from sight for a time the splendor of the achievements of the men who founded the Government and placed it upon such a sure and solid foundation that not even the madness of their enemies could destroy it; but as that wave slowly recedes, and we see the wreck it has made, the solid durability of the foundations it could not shake becomes every year plainer and more plain. The old Federal party can never be revived, but the reputation of the great men who composed it is sure to last as long as the Government they brought into being. Among them Hamilton must always retain one of the highest places. The only fault we have to find with Mr. Morse's life, which is throughout readable and instructive, is that he has made it too popular, or rather too familiar. The narrative is written *currente calamo*, and though Mr. Morse is generous in the use of praise and the expression of admiration, this does not make up for a slight lack of the dignity which the subject demands.

*Comparative Zoology, Structural and Systematic.* For use in Schools and Colleges. By James Orton, A.M., Professor of Natural History in Vassar College, etc. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1876. Pp. 396, 12mo.)—Zoology we know, and comparative anatomy we know; but what is comparative zoology? Anatomy began with that of man, and so that of the lower animals came to be called comparative anatomy. Zoology is, and always was, "the natural history of animals," as our author defines it. So the adjective is mere redundancy and grandiloquence—to be tolerated for once, exceptionally, as when Agassiz imposed it upon the great Museum of Zoology at Cambridge, but intolerable if it is to become epidemic among ambitious writers of text-books. Comparative anatomy may come next, and with equal reason. A good book for instruction might be expected from Professor Orton; and this is inviting in appearance, is well planned, clearly written, and abundantly—not to say superabundantly—illustrated with clearly-printed woodcuts. For the fault we find with these the blame should probably fall upon the publishers—an old and prosperous firm, which should be ambitious to add to the old stock of xylographic illustra-

tion, instead of borrowing the thrice-borrowed and well-worn. Of the three hundred and fifty-one blocks, over three hundred are from European sources; most of them have already done long service in popular treatises and encyclopedias, and some, like the whelk, fig. 249, are not improved by reversion in copying. We should not expect too much. Not every one has the gifts and taste of Morse, whose figures in his 'First Book of Zoology' are all new as well as true—new to text-books every one, and nine-tenths of them original. But, at least, American text-books might be illustrated by American shrimps, lobsters, whelks, and other such common animals; and for the rest it should be quite as easy, as it would be more creditable and instructive, to draw from the rich store of excellent indigenous figures which the Smithsonian, the Government exploration reports, and the Museum at Cambridge—not to go further—have lavishly provided. Some may like such scenic views as the Greenland whale with iceberg background, the sexton beetles burying a dead mouse, and the metamorphosis of the mosquito, with section and surface of a pool, earth, and sky all pictorially combined and fearfully swarming; but they are not quite to our fancy in a text-book.

Lest we should be thought to have looked only at the pictures, we will note that *Astacus marinus* is not the proper name for our lobster; that the Axolotl is a salamander and not a lizard; and that it is unusually "comparative" zoology indeed which teaches that "the ornithorhynchus, kangaroo, and bat stand on the border-line between mammals and the feathered tribe." These are little things in a book which, on the whole, seems to be excellent. Let us except the few lines appended to the close of the chapters on the lower orders of animals:

"Such are the main divisions of the invertebrates—creatures which are commonly regarded with aversion, and considered our foes rather than friends. Many of them are unmistakable nuisances, and it is difficult to see the purpose of their creation. Yet not a few have put us under obligations. Protozoans give us sponge and chalk, radiates yield us coral, mollusks contribute pearls, and insects spin us silk. Nearly every grand group sends representatives to our tables: oysters, sea-slugs, and lobsters are staple articles with many people; bees gather honey; and Amazonian Indians make ants into salad."

The ants in the Amazonian salad may be set off against the annoyance they give to the housewife in her pantry. A little frippery on the one hand may vicariously abate a deal of nuisance on the other; and so some worthy idea of "the purpose of their creation" be attained! If this be comparative zoology, it is by no means superlative natural theology.

*Sonnets.* By Sir Aubrey de Vere, Bart. A new edition. (London: Basil Montagu Pickering, 1875. 12mo, pp. 104.)—The name of Aubrey de Vere would not have been so widely known as it now is had it been borne only by the author of this little volume; but there is a peculiar pleasure in finding, when reading these sonnets, that the same spirit informs them with which we are familiar in the poems of the son and namesake by whose pious care these verses are once more presented to the world—verses which, if devoid of poetic imagination and *lift*, are yet rich in the meditative fancies and the elevation of feeling which at once spring from and produce poetic culture. They are the carefully-moulded expression of the sincere and serious thoughts of a high-minded man. And if they are not the lark's song-dropping flight into the sky, they have something of the pleasing reiteration of a few notes that charms us in the "curious chanters of the

wood," and a delicate reserve gives them enforced power. Sir Aubrey de Vere's own words afford an excellent description of his work:

"Time was when books, sent forth without pretence,  
Elaborately wrought with studious zeal,  
Were true exponents of the heart. To feel  
Stung came first: then speech, pure from offence  
Yet vigilantly fearless. Handmaid to Sense  
Will wrought for Reason: Satire probed to heal:  
And Rallery, chafed spirits to anneal:  
Thus, genuine instincts to fulfill, and thence  
Good ends secure, the purpose was of all."

Those readers who are readers also of the living Aubrey de Vere will feel how close is the kinship in the poetic nature of father and son, but will feel no less the superiority in fulness, freedom, and exquisiteness of sentiment and expression of the later delivery of such refined and scholarly doctrine. Both preach with an effective indirectness the gospel of a pure life created by a devout faith, and strengthened by sympathetic companionship with man and nature; but in comparing the two together as poets, as one is constantly led to do by the similarities between them, one is frequently reminded of the many pretty comparisons in Mr. Aubrey de Vere's Spring Songs in reference to the advance of the seasons. As May following April, so does he advancing "lift a chalice of confirmed delights."

We quote one of Sir Aubrey's sonnets as a characteristic specimen of his powers of thought and expression:

"DESPONDENCY IN BAD TIMES.

"1817.

"O that the Spirit of my thought could spring,  
As with an eagle's pinion, to that height  
Where in the golden palaces of light  
Yon Type of freedom dwells, throned like a King!  
So might I catch upon expanded wing  
And the replenished fountains of the sight  
Gleams fresh from heaven, and stoop my earthward flight  
The thunderbolts of vengeance scattering.  
But, as it is, sorrow and shame, suppress  
How down my heart; and fancy droops forlorn  
(Like young birds by rude tempests overborne,  
Or flowers in autumn winds fading full fast).  
So I, amid this deepening gloom, unblessed  
Sit in my country's shade, and silent mourn!"

Sir Aubrey de Vere was born in 1783 and died in 1846—dying, as he had lived, in the home of his infancy, Curragh Chase, in the county of Limerick. He published several volumes of poems, of which the most considerable was a drama, 'Mary Tudor,' which has lately attracted attention by its similarity in subject and difference in treatment from Tennyson's 'Queen Mary.' The few agreeable pages of memoir by his son which serve as preface to this volume, confirm the impression of sweet and interesting character produced by the elder De Vere's own writings.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publ.—Price.—D. C.
Bancroft (G.), History of the United States, revised. Vol. VI. .... (Little Brown & Co.)	
Buchner (W.), Der Rhein, der deutschen Lieblingstrom, swd. .... (L. W. Schmidt)	
De Bonblanc (A.), A Family Tree: novel, swd. .... (Estes & Lauriat)	75
Gaboriau (E.), File No. 113: Novel, swd. .... (Estes & Lauriat)	75
Helen's Babies, swd. .... (Loring)	50
Horweiz (A.), Zur Naturgeschichte der Gefühle, swd. .... (L. W. Schmidt)	50
Hoose (J. H.), Studies in Articulation. .... (C. W. Bardeen)	50
Hamilton (M. C. V.), Woven of many Threads, swd. .... (Estes & Lauriat)	50
Journey of A. R. Mar. ary from Shanghai to Bhamo. .... (Macmillan & Co.)	3 50
Jordan (Dr. D. S.), Manual of Vertebrate Animals. .... (Jensen, McClurg & Co.)	2 00
Packard, Jr. (A. S.), Half-hours with Insects. Parts 9, 10, swd. .... (Estes & Lauriat)	25
Proceedings of the American Association for Advancement of Science, swd. .... (Salm)	
Osenbrüggen (E.), Die Schweiz in den Wandelungen der Neuzeit, swd. .... (L. W. Schmidt)	
Riddell (Mrs. J. H.), Above Suspicion: Novel, swd. .... (Estes & Lauriat)	75
Schneider (J. P.), Die ungedeckte Banknote, swd. .... (L. W. Schmidt)	
Stephen (J. F.), Digest of the Law of Evidence. .... (Macmillan & Co.)	3 00
The Portfolio for July. .... (J. W. Bouton)	
Turrell (C. B.), California Notes, Vol. I. .... (San Francisco)	
Wittmeyer (Dr. L.), Ueber die Leichenverbrennung, swd. .... (L. W. Schmidt)	
Zittel (K. A.), Die Kreide, swd. .... (L. W. Schmidt)	

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